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MR. ROOSEVELT'S SOUTH AMERICAN EXPEDITION

Mr. Roosevelt will arrive in this country about May 20, after an absence of nearly eight months, over five of which were spent in the interior of tropical Brazil. After traveling nearly two thousand miles by steamboat, gasoline launch, mule-back, and Indian dugout, he reached Manaos, a city of forty thousand people, situated nearly a thousand miles up the River Amazon, on April 29. From there he took the Booth Line steamer Dunstan. It is expected that he will reach New York sometime during the latter part of May.

The first part of the journey, by steamboat and gasoline launch, was completed by January 20. The second part, the long mule ride through Matto Grosso, occupied until February 27, and on completion of this, Mr. Roosevelt, together with his son Kermit, Colonel Rondon, head of the Brazilian contingent, and G. K. Cherrie, a naturalist representing the American Museum of Natural History of New York, under whose auspices the expedition was made, started in Indian dugouts down the Rio Duvida (River of Doubt). Some of the other members of the party had already gone down the Papagaio River into the Tapajos to Manaos, while others went down the Gi Parana into the Madeira, also to Manaos. Both the Papagaio and the Gi Parana had formerly been explored, but part of the Rio Duvida explored by Colonel Roosevelt had never before been seen by civilized man. Incidentally, the Brazilian Government intends to rename the river and call it the Rio Teodoro, in honor of Colonel Roosevelt. "Teodoro" is the way the Brazilians spell Theodore. It was thought best to use Mr. Roosevelt's Christian name instead of his surname, because Brazilians find it extremely difficult to pronounce the latter correctly.

In an interview given a reporter of the Associated Press, and cabled from Pará, Brazil, Mr. Roosevelt said:

We were during six weeks at steady labor slogging our way, on an average making not more than a couple of miles a day. The last part of this time we were living on half rations.

Two sets of rapids were at the bottom of canyons where the river clove its way through mountain chains. Of the seven canoes with which we started five were lost in the rapids. One of our men was drowned and two others, including Kermit, narrowly escaped death by drowning.

Under the strain one man went mad. He finally murdered one of his comrades and fled into the wilderness.

We saw no Indians, but twice heard them. While Colonel Rondon, chief of the Brazilian mission, was out alone hunting, his dog was killed by arrows. The dog's death probably saved Colonel Rondon's life.

I had a severe bout of fever, and, while working around a canoe in the rapids, bruised my leg, which developed into a bad abscess, but I am now practically all right.

Mr. Cherrie, a veteran in tropical South America, says that during his stay of more than twenty years in that part of the world he has never before made such a trying expedition.

The results achieved by the expedition were the collection for scientific purposes of about 1,500 birds and 500 mammals, and the putting on the map of a river running from north of 13° to south of 5°, the largest affluent of the Madeira. The upper part of this river has hitherto been unknown to topographers. Furthermore, the scientific data collected will be invaluable to the Brazilian Government and to scientists all over the world.

THE ARMY MAKES PEACE IN COLORADO

With the advent of the Federal troops the actual warfare which had disgraced the State of Colorado and resulted in the horrible death of women and children as well as men ceased everywhere. The first act of the officer in command was to demand the surrender of all arms not in the hands of United States soldiers. The order was so sweepingly worded that it might be taken to include

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even arms in the hands of the State militia, although it will not be so interpreted, except possibly in the case of mine guards enlisted as militia overnight and still in the pay of the mining companies—an almost unbelievable state of things, which is nevertheless said to exist. The representatives of the striking miners at once announced their willingness to comply with the demands, and again expressed both locally and through their National organization, the United Mine Workers of America, willingness to submit the questions at issue before any fair board of arbitration. On the other hand, mine-owners representing twenty companies in Colorado, acting, as they declare, independently of Mr. Rockefeller, and without reference to the course which may be followed by his corporation, the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, have sent to Washington a telegram absolutely declining to submit to arbitration.

A special session of the Colorado Legislature has convened to act in the emergency that has arisen. The leaders of the strikers say that the majority of this Legislature are overfriendly to the corporations and question the sincerity of the proposals in the Legislature to pass the bills introduced providing for a State constabulary, the prevention of the sale of firearms, the granting of authority to the Governor to prevent the sale of liquor in the strike zone, and for a Constitutional amendment for the enactment of a compulsory arbitration law. All these measures seem excellent in themselves, if properly constructed; and it would hardly be fair to accept at this stage the contention of the union leaders that the introduction of these bills was intended to smooth the way for the passage of a bill appropriating a large sum of money to pay the militiamen—a bill which may be proper and right, but which certainly should not include the payment of men in the pay of the mine-owners as mine guards.

The verdict of the coroner's jury in the case of the men, women, and children slaughtered at the camp near Ludlow was a strong indictment of the militia and the mine guards, and it is more than probable that its language and statements were affected by the bitter popular feeling as regards the tragedy. It declares as to the women and children, that they came to their deaths "by asphyxiation or fire or both, caused by the burning of the tents of the Ludlow tent colony, and the fire on the tents was started by militiamen under Major Hamrock and Lieutenant Linderfelt or mine guards or both, on the 20th day of April, 1914." Among the eye-witnesses who testified were some who declared, according to the newspaper reports that reach us, that "the soldiers walked among women and children who were crawling on the ground and screaming from terror and ruthlessly applied torches to the tents."

Elsewhere in this issue of The Outlook we consider editorially questions raised by this private war in Colorado.

THE ARMY AND NAVY AS ADMINISTRATORS

It is safe to say that the Mexican city of Vera Cruz has never been so well governed in its long history as it is to-day after our army has managed its affairs for two or three weeks. To build a canal, eradicate yellow fever, and carry on town government—all come within the field of duties for which the United States army is always under training.

And when we say "army" we may well say navy also. Admiral Fletcher's admirable handling of the difficult situation that existed when his forces had driven the Mexican soldiers from Vera Cruz, had dealt with the vicious "snipers," and had taken over custom-house, municipal taxation, and city housekeeping, excited the praise of the naturally hostile inhabitants. Within a few days the fears of those Mexicans who expected summary reprisals for the house-top firing on Americans were calmed, political prisoners were released, the abominable jail was condemned as unfit, the hungry were fed from naval stores, the water supply was guarded, and American bands were playing in the Plaza to the delight of the music-loving Mexicans. Quiet, order, and security were assured by the American flag, whereas under Mexican rule too often pillage under pretense of law, oppression, and tyranny had been experienced. In Admiral Fletcher's withdrawal order, after well-deserved but restrained praise of the marines, bluejackets, and gun-handlers, he said: "In nine days' work the city of Vera Cruz was occupied by the navy, lawlessness and disorder suppressed, 11,000 firearms taken possession of, and a line of defenses established around the city against an army threatening to recapture it. Business was resumed and normal conditions restored."

The transfer from naval to military control, with a brief interregnum of a civil governor, Mr. Robert J. Kerr, was made with the smoothness and precision of a

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machine. One newspaper despatch says: "Vera Cruz is more crowded to-day than it has ever been before, and busier. The Vera Cruz merchants are the happiest of all; . . . they are waxing rich on the trade." General Funston's order establishing military government gave the provost marshal power "to institute or *continue in force*" the departments of city work; and it was particularly clear in pointing out that it is proposed to carry out the system the people are used to so far as military necessities permit. One of General Funston's first acts was to investigate reports that Spanish shopkeepers had unfairly raised prices on foodstuffs, and that the poor were in consequence suffering.

The American people have cause for pride in the administrative work of their army and navy. At Vera Cruz Mexicans who have been taught by leaders of the Huerta type that "gringoes" or "Yanquis" were grotesque barbarians, cruel and avaricious, have now a chance to see on a small scale in actual practice what our idea of government for the good of the governed means.

MEXICO: THE NEGOTIATIONS FOR MEDIATION

That the task of the mediators of the three great South American countries would not be simple or easy was evident from the beginning. Nevertheless they have proceeded calmly and quietly, and evince their wish to deal thoroughly with every question relating to the Mexican situation which the parties interested are willing to place before them. A practical step in advance is the choice of a place for the mediation conferences. It was announced that the conferences will begin at Niagara Falls on the Canadian side on May 18. Representatives to appear before the conference have been appointed by General Huerta; the United States' representatives have not, as we write, been named.

General Carranza's refusal to put before the mediators the questions growing out of the war between the Constitutionalists and General Huerta, has, for the present, at least, eliminated from their consideration a very important part of the large Mexican question. It is not unnatural, when one takes into account the very great military success of Carranza's general in the field, Villa, that the Constitutionalists, hoping as they do for speedy victory in their war, do not regard it as a subject for mediation. On the other hand, the reply sent by the mediators to General Carranza on receipt of his refusal is important and illuminating because of its plain statement that this refusal is "inconsistent with the idea which caused us to offer our good offices." The mediators add: "We think, indeed, that all the difficulties which have contributed toward the present situation in Mexico bear directly or indirectly on the solution of the pending conflict between Mexico and the United States."

The indications are that the United States, through President Wilson and Secretary Bryan, is disposed to take a broad view of the questions which may properly be raised before the mediators. The opinion has been rather widely expressed that, if Carranza is eliminated from the mediation, the work of the mediators will necessarily be confined to the Tampico incident, the occupation of Vera Cruz, and the payment of compensation to the United States for the expense to which it has been put by Huerta's obstinacy. It is by no means clear to us that this is the case; for we do not see how the mere settlement of these two incidents can effect a permanent solution of the Mexican problem; and certainly it is to be earnestly hoped, now that the friendly offices of the three great South American countries have been offered and accepted, that out of this crisis such conclusions may be reached as will result in permanent peace in Mexico, satisfactory relations between that country and the United States, and the preparation for political and industrial progress and security in Mexico.

THE SITUATION IN MEXICO

No clash of arms between our forces in Vera Cruz and General Huerta's army took place up to May 6, although anxiety was caused by the action of subordinate Mexican Federal officers in making the preposterous demand that our forces should abandon the Vera Cruz waterworks—for which Huerta's forces have no use, and which are absolutely essential to the health and life of both our forces and the inhabitants of Vera Cruz. It is understood that Mexicans have mined the railway from Vera Cruz to Mexico City; and not entirely probable reports state that Huerta has some ten thousand troops on that line for the defense of the capital.

Meanwhile Huerta has his hands more than full with Villa's threatening armies. By May 6 Villa's army, said to be between fifteen and twenty thousand men, was encamped before Saltillo, firing had

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begun, and a vigorous attack upon the city was expected at any moment. Whether Saltillo will be defended strongly by the Federal Mexican forces or whether they will withdraw to San Luis Potosí is uncertain. At all events, the last-named town, should Saltillo fall or be surrendered, would be the next important point of defense on the route from Torreon to Mexico City. Attacks by the Constitutionalists upon Tampico are also reported, and apprehension has been felt lest in the fighting the enormous oil wells there should be set on fire and the town burned.

The reports that come out from the Mexican capital are widely inconsistent. Some state that Villa has all his preparations made for extended fighting; others that he is prepared to fight both Huerta and the United States troops, if necessary; and still others that a plot against Huerta, and perhaps against Blanquet, exists in the Mexican army.

THE FEDERAL RESERVE BOARD

The President appointed last week the five members of the Federal Reserve Board whom it is his duty to select under the provisions of the new banking act. The full Board is made up of the five appointees of the President, of the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Comptroller of the Currency *ex officio*.

The nominations of the President were Richard Olney, ex-Secretary of State of Boston; W. P. G. Harding, President of the First National Bank of Birmingham, Alabama; H. A. Wheeler, Vice-President of the Union Trust Company, of Chicago; Adolph C. Miller, at one time Professor of Finance at the University of California, and now Assistant Secretary of the Interior at Washington; and Paul M. Warburg, a partner in the great banking house of Kuhn, Loeb & Co., of New York City. Mr. Olney's appointment would have made him Governor of the Board had he accepted it; but he felt compelled to decline, perhaps because of his age, as he is now in his seventy-ninth year. The other four appointees have accepted, and at this writing it is reported that Mr. Charles S. Hamlin, of Boston, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury in President Cleveland's Cabinet and First Assistant Secretary of the Treasury in the present Administration, will be invited to take Mr. Olney's place.

The appointments have met with very cordial approval throughout the country. It is interesting to note how completely they have dissipated the fear expressed by many bankers that the Board would be of such a political nature as to make the new Federal Bank System the football of politics. We have steadily said, in reply to the expression of this fear, that if the President of the United States cannot be trusted to make appointments of this nature solely for the public good he cannot be trusted to do anything. For this reason The Outlook has for a long time supported the proposal, unfortunately omitted from the Aldrich Bill and very wisely incorporated into the Glass-Owen Bill, that the President should appoint the members of the Board.

The law provides that two members of the Board shall be "persons experienced in banking and finance." Three of the President's appointees are able and distinguished bankers—Mr. Harding, Mr. Wheeler, and Mr. Warburg. Geographically the Southern States, New York (the financial center of the country), New England, the middle West, and the Pacific Coast are represented on the Board. Mr. Warburg, who, by the way, is of German birth and is not yet fifty years old, is not only a practical banker of distinction, but has a very honorable reputation for his knowledge of the science and theory of banking, and his writings on banking questions appeal to the economist as well as to his fellow-bankers.

Under the law the members of the Reserve Board must devote their entire time to the work of the Board, and must not be officers or directors of any banks or banking institutions. The three above-named bank members of the Board will therefore be compelled to resign all connection with their present firms. Each member of the Board receives a salary of twelve thousand dollars a year. Thus the construction of the new National bank system, which has occupied the country for ten years, is now practically complete.

We hope the bankers in the country will not be so absorbed in the practical operations of the new system and so relieved of their fears regarding its dangerous political character that they will forget how much they owe for its legislative creation to Representative Carter Glass, of Virginia.

"COMFORT AND AID" FROM HOSTILE SOURCES

When Mr. Anderson, of the New York Anti-Saloon League, opened his mail and

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found in it the original of the following letter, it is quite possible that he exclaimed in the words of Jonathan, "Jehovah hath delivered them into our hand." This letter was forwarded to Mr. Anderson by the Keeley Institute of Dwight, Illinois. It came to the latter institution from a Distiller's Distributing Company about to retire from business. Perhaps it may be of interest to the readers of The Outlook.

KENTUCKY DISTILLER'S DISTRIBUTING COMPANY
Distributors direct from Distillery

Kansas City, Mo., Dec. 3, 1913.

Keeley Institute,
Dwight, Illinois:

Gentlemen—Our customers are your prospective patients.

We can put on your desk a mailing list of over 50,000 individual consumers of liquor. This list is the result of thousands of dollars of advertising.

Each individual on the list is a regular user of liquor. The list of names is now live and active. We know because we have circularized it regularly. We will furnish this list in quantities at the prices listed below. Remittance to accompany order.

40,000 to 50,000.....	$400.00
20,000.....	300.00
10,000.....	200.00

We will not furnish the list in less than lots of 10,000.

Discontinuance of business January 1 is the occasion of selling our mailing list.

Yours truly,
KENTUCKY DISTILLER'S
DISTRIBUTING COMPANY.
W. FRANKLIN, Pr.

The same letter was sent to the Neal Institute of Chicago, another institution for alcoholism, the management of which followed it up and was informed that a charge of ten cents per name would be made for the exclusive use of the list. The last letter, a "follow-up," dated December 20, to the Neal Institute, contains the following paragraph as printed in the Chicago "Tribune" Friday, April 17. The "Tribune" is authority for the statement that the original letters of the Distillery Company are in the possession of the Neal Institute:

We know that you can make our list exceptionally productive to you. Each man on it has been a regular buyer of liquor by mail and a constant user of it, and there is not a single one who would not like to quit the habit. Each man is keenly alive to the injury of his practice, and he is only awaiting some way of stopping. If you can convince him of the permanent efficacy of your treatment he is your patient, and you know how to convince him.

A CELTIC PHILOSOPHER'S CONTRIBUTION

Perhaps one of the most interesting contributions to the present country-wide discussion of the liquor question has been made by a man who is both a saloon-keeper and a political philosopher of remarkable keenness and wit. Mr. Dooley's opinion of the progress of the temperance movement may be gathered from the following brief extract taken from Mr. Dunne's report of a conversation between the presiding genius of Archey Road and his friend Hennessy. We quote from the New York "Times." Says Mr. Dooley:

"King Alcohol no longer rules th' sea or th' land. Th' ladies have got that binivolent ol' dishpot on his knees beggin' f'r mercy an' they're sayin' to him, 'Did ye have mercy on us?' an' ar-re gettin' ready to chop off his wicked ol' head. Take a dhrink, me boy, whether ye need it or not. Take it now. It may be ye'er last.

"I used to laugh at th' pro-hybitionists; I used to laugh thim to scorn. But I laugh no more; they've got us on th' run. I wudden't be surprised at anny minyit if I had to turn this emporyum into an exchange f'r women's wurruk. Whether ye like it or not, in a few years there won't be anny saloons to lure the marri'd man fr'm his home, furnish guests f'r our gr-reat asylums an' jails, an' brighten up th' dark sthreets with their cheerful glow. I don't care. I wudden't mind if all th' liquor in th' wurruld was poored into th' lake. It wud make people pay their wather tax with a lighter heart." . . .

"I don't believe in this here prohybition," said Mr. Hennessy. "Th' man who dhrinks modhrately ought to be allowed to have what he wants."

"What is his name?" asked Mr. Dooley. "What novel is he in?"

Evidently Mr. Dooley has little confidence in the self-control of the drinker who "knows when he has had enough." His professional experience behind the bar may possibly have furnished him with adequate data for the opinion which he holds!

THE CUP DEFENDERS

A wholesome indication of international good sportsmanship is contained in the news that the plans for the three yachts built for the International Cup races in the fall have been made public. In the past it has been the practice to maintain a profound secrecy in

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regard to construction and design, even when the necessity for silence as to these essentials had quite ceased. The details of the three defending yachts have been published in the "Scientific American," from which the information in this account is taken.

The three defending yachts, as well as the challenger for this year's races, are built under the new rule of measurements, which penalizes extremes of overhang and sail area. This has made for a more wholesome and normal type of boat than has been possible in the past. It will be remembered that the Reliance, Herreshoff's last defender, on a waterline of just under 90 feet spread the enormous sail area of 16,000 square feet of canvas, and was over 140 feet on deck. The racing yachts built under the old rule lost their usefulness as soon as the cup contests were over. The new boats will be available when the races are finished for the regular yachting regattas annually held on our coast. If their owners wish to turn them into cruisers there is sufficient head-room to enable the interior of their hulls to be bulkheaded and furnished with the necessary accommodations.

The three yachts—the Resolute, designed by Herreshoff, the Defiance, designed by Owen, and the Vanitie, designed by Gardner—are each 74 feet 9 inches in length, and in draft 13 feet 9 inches. Only one foot difference in beam separates the Resolute from the Defiance. They are of 21 feet 6 inches and 22 feet 6 inches beam respectively. The Vanitie splits the difference between these two yachts with a beam of 22 feet. The Vanitie shows the least departure from the yachts built under the old rule. The Resolute shows the most. She has much shorter overhangs than the other two boats, her over-all length on deck being only 106 feet 5 inches, as against 115 feet in the Defiance and 119 feet in the Vanitie.

The most interesting feature of difference in the three yachts is the sail plan, and those familiar with the towering mountains of canvas with which Herreshoff has equipped his boats in the past will be surprised to learn that his new defender has a smaller sail area than either the Vanitie or the Defiance. The canvas of the Defiance indeed exceeds that of the Resolute by over fifteen hundred square feet. The Defiance is, moreover, notable for the fact that the bulk of her sail area is concentrated to an unusual extent in her mainsail. Her boom is 15 feet longer than the boom of the Resolute. Her mast is stepped 14½ feet nearer the end of her bowsprit than is the mast of the Vanitie. It is expected from this design that the Defiance will have fine weatherly qualities in going to windward, should point and foot fast while so doing, but she is very likely to be a difficult boat to steer.

A photograph of the hull of the Resolute just after its launching is published on another page of this issue.

DAVID DUFFLE WOOD

During his lifetime David Duffle Wood's name was not widely known outside of Philadelphia, where almost all his life was spent; but in his case, at least, reputation is not a trustworthy measure of service. If he had been a statesmen, or builder of railways, or promoter of giant industries, or writer of widely read books, he might have received honors while alive; but the sort of service he rendered was as deserving of honor as that of any such man—and some day it will be valued in America as it ought to be. He was an organist, teacher of music, and composer.

His work, however, has not been unrecognized. On April 29 there was unveiled in St. Stephen's Church, Philadelphia, a portrait-tablet erected to his memory. A photograph of this tablet is reproduced on another page in this issue. It is worthy of being widely known, not only for its own sake as a fine example of Charles Grafly's work in portrait-sculpture—but because of the man whom it commemorates.

Dr. Wood, who died in 1910, was regarded by musicians of discriminating taste as perhaps the foremost interpreter of Bach in America. He certainly was one of the earliest Americans to appreciate and understand Bach. Mr. J. Fred. Wolle, the remarkable leader of the Bach Festivals at Bethlehem, said at the unveiling exercises that his own interest in Bach was first awakened when he was a pupil of Dr. Wood. Those who know what insight Mr. Wolle has into the works of the great master can best understand what a tribute this is to Dr. Wood's influence.

Dr. Wood was, moreover, a great teacher. It has been said that at least three-fourths of the present organists in the city of Philadelphia are either pupils of Dr. Wood or pupils of his pupils. As a conductor he was primarily a teacher. Under his tuition

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choruses seemed to gain an understanding as well as a vocal mastery; and it has been said that an edition of Bach might be prepared by the pupils of Dr. Wood which would embody his interpretation of Bach's organ works. Incidentally, he was one of the foremost teachers of the blind. It has been stated that the fact that there are nine blind organists in the churches of the city of Philadelphia is due to the training they received from Dr. Wood.

As church musician he was known and honored by his colleagues in the profession. As far back as 1879 the organist of the City Temple in London, after visiting Philadelphia, wrote of the service at St. Stephen's, where Dr. Wood was organist, "My first experience of a real American service was decidedly the best."

Dr. Wood was not widely known as a composer. This is partly due to the fact that there was nothing sensational in his work; but it was still more largely due to the fact that until his death practically none of his compositions were published, and not all of them even completely written out. This in turn was due to a fact that had great bearing on Dr. Wood's career—his blindness. Accident and illness left him blind at three years of age. When he was five years old his mother, with Spartan heroism, bade him good-by as he started on a long canal journey from his home, near Pittsburgh, across the State of Pennsylvania to Philadelphia, to become a pupil of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind. It was there that he began his study of music, though he was largely self-taught. What it means for a blind boy to acquire the mastery of the organ is hardly comprehensible to one with sight, but it resulted, in his case, in possibly a higher degree of musicianship than he might have attained if he had had the use of his eyes. He was an undoubted master of counterpoint. He had to play everything by heart, learning it by ear. All his writing had to be done by dictation. The consequent mental concentration shows in the quiet mastery of counterpoint in the few compositions of his that have been published. The difficulty of writing his compositions naturally had the effect of allowing his creative impulses to find expression in improvisation. In that art he gained great distinction. Some of his anthems have been published by Novello. They are framed on the classical models, characterized by flowing counterpoint, serene in spirit. His serenity, as well as the dignity and tragedy of the blind, is expressed in Mr. Grafly's sculptured portrait. There are few anthems of such tranquillity, for example, as Dr. Wood's anthem in D Flat Major, "The Twilight Shadows Fall." Choirmasters who are not familiar with his work ought to know these anthems.

"THE LUNATIC FRINGE"

The destruction by a militant suffragist (the name applied to a victim of the prevalent outbreak of hysteria) of a portrait of Henry James, the novelist, painted by Sargent, who is perhaps the most brilliant portrait-painter of his time, is especially interesting to us because both the artist and his subject are American. The portrait was a tribute from a group of friends to the distinguished novelist, and was hanging in the exhibition of the Royal Academy. A woman, very appropriately armed with a butcher's cleaver concealed under her clothing, approached it and suddenly slashed the picture so effectively as probably to destroy it.

It was a brutal attack in a field which ought to be neutral ground among civilized peoples, and it was a contemptible attack because it was secret. To assassinate a work of art is to destroy a public possession. It is to diminish the resources of society; it is to kill while evading the responsibilities of murder. The militants have succeeded in closing many of the most interesting buildings and treasures of art in England. They will probably now succeed in closing the exhibitions. So far as possible they are diminishing the resources of life.

It has been asked why the British Government does not end this form of ruthless guerrilla fighting by granting what the militants claim. But no concession would end this conflict. This method of agitation would not be ended with the achievement of the ballot for women. It is a temper which will be revealed whenever women of this type want things in the future which the majority is not disposed to give them. To recognize this kind of agitation as legitimate would be to encourage a form of outrage which would make society impossible. Women who are willing to destroy works of art and burn the property of private persons will not be satisfied with the ballot. They will never be satified unless what they want is instantly conceded to them.

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If they have the ballot, they will use the same methods to secure whatever legislation they think ought to be passed. It is an issue which society must meet.

The agitation for suffrage is an entirely different matter; it is with the "lunatic fringe" of the suffragist movement that the British Government is dealing.

THE FAREWELL DINNER TO FORBES-ROBERTSON

The retirement from the stage of Sir Johnston Forbes-Robertson called forth expressions of admiration and affection at a farewell dinner in New York City last week. The distinguished actor gracefully said that American enthusiasm and American financial support had made it possible for him to retire from an arduous profession in his prime and follow his lifelong avocation, painting. There were alluring suggestions of his retirement into an English garden with canvas and brushes.

The dinner brought together a large number of influential people, who were reinforced at the close by a larger fringe of men and women eager to listen, although they had not been able to dine. The note of the occasion was sincerity of regard. It was quite evident that both Sir Johnston and Lady Forbes-Robertson had found places in the affections of those who gathered to honor them. Among the speakers were Dr. Adler, Mr. Winthrop Ames, whose work in the Little Theater has been so intelligent and so interesting, Mrs. Le Moyne, Mr. Mabie, and a niece of Sir Johnston who happened to be present and was called upon to speak for the family, and who paid the actor a charming and heartfelt tribute, and incidentally made a suffrage speech of an entirely different tone and quality from the speeches of most of the advocates of that cause. Its persuasiveness, charm, and sincerity strikingly illustrated the influential qualities of that kind of speech, as contrasted with another kind with which the public is too familiar.

Forbes-Robertson has won his way into the front rank by intelligence, idealism, and hard work. He is one of the actors of our time, and there are fortunately many, who regard the profession of acting as an art and who make their auditors understand that the drama in its truest estate is literature and not merely entertainment. At the close Sir Johnston, taking hold of the British and American flags that hung together behind him, expressed his devoted affection to both countries and was cheered to the echo when he declared that the flags must always be brought together as the emblems of peace, not only in the English-speaking countries, but throughout the world. To honor an artist is not only to express appreciation of individual achievement, but to remind the people of this busy country that art is one of the great concerns of life and one of its major resources.

CHINA IN FLUX

"Unchanging" China is showing new signs of change. The question of a state religion, for instance, indicates some swaying to and fro of the views of the people. Many were ready, a few months ago, to throw away altogether the teachings of Confucius. Then the faithful organized a Confucian society, and urged Confucianism as the only proper state religion for the new Republic. As soon as this movement was well under way, opposition came from all parts of the country; many petitions of protest were sent to the Government by Buddhists, Mohammedans, Taoists, and Christians, both Protestants and Catholics. Even some very liberal Confucianists said that they were not in favor of having a state religion. The conclusion reached by President Yuan Shi-kai would indicate that special honors are to be paid by the State to Confucius, but that Confucianism is not to be regarded in the strict sense as the religion of the State to the exclusion of every other.

Changed conditions are also noted in social customs. Even the costumes of men on the street are changing. Curious contrasts are evident in the Peking streets. Modern macadamized pavements seem strangely out of place as the setting for the old custom of publicly burning paper houses, men, and horses at funerals. From this a swift return to modernism is felt as one hears the whir of an aeroplane, and looks up to see a Chinese aviator circling overhead. In the toy shops small models of these aeroplanes are for sale. But alongside are the traditional snake-skins, bears' claws, and tigers' bones to heal the ailments of mankind for sale.

Very interesting are the political changes. A republic was established. But no sooner was it established than the personal ambitions and disappointments of the radicals led to a new and unsuccessful rebellion. This set the swinging of the pendulum further to the other extreme, and now there is a tendency

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towards reaction. It is seen that China is not yet ready to carry out the entire republican idea, and to have full representation of the people and by the people in Parliament. This was shown in the proclamation last week of a new Constitution, by which the President receives new and larger powers.

At this critical time of change the influence of America is more than ever important, for China looks to America as to no other land for sympathy, support, and co-operation.

THE ISSUE IN COLORADO

As long as private war rages in any part of a civilized country one duty is paramount —to end private war by asserting the sovereign power of the Government. When that duty is performed, however, another duty, equal in importance, though not first in order of time, remains—to establish such just conditions that there will be no need for such a private war to recur. In Colorado the sovereign power of the Federal Government has been asserted; Federal troops in the strike region have restored a semblance of order; the men engaged in the fighting have been disarmed, and private war in that region has ceased. But the American people have a bigger task before them than this one of restoring order. They have a task of establishing industrial justice, and, in particular, of seeing that in this mining region of Colorado the mining of coal shall be carried on with due regard to elementary human rights.

This is a comparatively uninteresting task. It will not arouse public interest and excitement, as did the task of suppressing the private war by the sending of the Federal troops; but it is a task that must be done if this Nation is to deserve to be counted civilized and orderly. Out of this private war in Colorado may thus come one good result—the American people may be helped by it to understand the supreme importance of social justice.

It was because of social injustice in Colorado that the miners of Colorado rose in revolt. And it is significant that in this case, as in all such cases, the revolt was not against the Government. It was against a power outside of the Government, which has been allowed to have more direct control over the lives of these miners, more responsibility for their welfare, more actual authority to determine their destinies, than the Government. This power consists of an industrial system composed of a number of great allied corporations. These corporations in turn consist of people scattered all over the United States who have one thing in common—a share in the ownership of these coal resources of Colorado. The very nature of these corporations renders them immune from attack as bodies of people. These miners cannot engage in warfare with these stockholders; and of course they cannot rise in revolt against the Government, for the Government does not own these mines. That is why this revolt, like all such revolts, has taken the form not of public insurrection, but of private warfare; for those who are logically responsible (the stockholders) and those who are theoretically sovereign (the people of Colorado) are out of range, and the only ones with whom the miners can come in contact are salaried servants and their mercenaries.

Can anybody say that this is a tolerable state of affairs? Can anybody point out where in this situation there is the least promise of the establishment of just relations?

Certainly the salaried servants of the company cannot be held responsible, for they are stewards of the stockholders. They can be held responsible for their individual acts; but they cannot be held responsible for the system.

And that system involves social injustice. There is the social injustice of bad living conditions. Our special correspondent, who gave an account of the strike war in Colorado, reported those living conditions in brief. We shall not repeat that report here except to quote three phrases—"inadequate housing," "general ugliness of the surroundings," "absolutely no sanitation worthy of the name." There is also the social injustice of bad working conditions. At best mining is a dangerous occupation. It is certainly not at its best in Colorado. Chief of all, however, is the injustice of the very situation itself—a group of allied mighty, highly organized corporations dealing with a great mass of men who these organizations insist shall not be allowed to become effectively organized. It is this particular form of social injustice which is the efficient cause of the private war between the miners and the employing corporations.

The only way by which these miners can

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become organized is by joining a labor organization. About ten per cent of the miners, it is universally acknowledged, have joined the United Mine Workers. The corporation managers have declared that they will not recognize or deal with this union. In taking this position they are supported by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., the representative of what is understood to be the largest single stockholding interest in the mining companies. The managers and Mr. Rockefeller declare that they are doing this out of regard for the ninety per cent who do not belong to the union. They say that men have a right to work for a company without joining a union. Moreover, the United Mine Workers is not merely an organization of their employees, but is a National body whose members are to be found in various mining regions. The issue, as the mine managers view it, is presented in these words of Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., before a House committee. We quote from a newspaper report, inasmuch as we have been unable to get the authorized report of the hearings:

> We believe the issue is not a local one in Colorado. It is a National issue, whether workers shall be allowed to work under such conditions as they may choose. As part owners of the property, our interest in the laboring men of this country is so immense, so deep, so profound, that we stand ready to lose every cent we put in that company rather than see the men we have employed thrown out of work and have imposed on them conditions which are not of their seeking and which neither they nor we can see are in our interest. Our interest in labor is so profound and we believe so sincerely that our interest demands that the camps remain open camps that we expect to stand by the officers at any cost.

That is the argument Mr. Rockefeller presents for refusal to recognize the union. It is the familiar argument against the so-called "closed shop." Apart from the question whether ninety per cent of the men who are not in the union (according to the managers' figures) remain outside because they choose, or because they do not wish to risk the disapproval of the companies' managers, this statement of Mr. Rockefeller's is not convincing, because it confuses the closed shop with recognition of the union. Professor E. R. A. Seligman, of Columbia University, has pointed out the distinction:

> It is claimed by the operators that this is a fight against the closed shop, whereas in reality it is a fight against the recognition of the union.

The two things are by no means the same. The closed shop means that none but union men may be employed; the recognition of the union means that the employers should consent to discuss matters of common interest with the representatives of the union. Under conditions of complete freedom these would normally and in a short time represent most of the workers.

If any of the workers, however, desire to remain out of the union, the favorable conditions obtained by the union representatives would, nevertheless, apply to them. The existing protocol in the clothing industry in New York shows that the recognition of the union does not necessarily imply a closed shop. The solicitude of the coal operators is ostensibly in behalf of the "free" laborer. It is really against the union laborer. At bottom it is a contest between individual and collective bargaining.

The real issue, therefore, in Colorado is whether the miners in dealing with a highly organized set or group of great corporations shall themselves be allowed to be well organized. The right of labor thus to organize in order to deal with capital which is already organized seems to us an elementary principle in social justice.

In order to prevent the miners from becoming well organized these powerful and highly organized corporations brought in a large number of men, armed them, and employed them as mine guards, and then, according to testimony, in some cases these privately employed mine guards were sworn in as members of the State militia.

There are only two rational alternatives for this state of anarchy and misuse of governmental forces in a private war: one is that the Government itself, under the conviction that private companies have proved incompetent to carry on the mining industry, should declare the corporations virtually bankrupt; and, taking their property as a receiver takes the property of any bankrupt concern, should operate the mine itself; the other is that the Government should see that the miners themselves are competently, adequately, and responsibly organized, should insist on their right to have their say as to the conditions under which they shall work and live, and should enforce upon both the organizations of mine owners and the organizations of mine workers the final decision of the Government as to what is right and just between them.

It is certain that the one or other of these alternatives must be adopted if the United States is to remain civilized and orderly.

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THE HIGHWAY TO PEACE

The New York Peace Society has issued a statement relating to the Mexican imbroglio which, in a paragraph, indicates the nature of the Mexican difficulty, and implies the duty of the United States and the road to permanent peace. This paragraph is as follows:

> The effort of the mediating Governments to prevent war between the United States and Mexico has already resulted in an endeavor to end the present civil war in Mexico. This can be permanently accomplished only by opening the way for internal reforms, and especially for such changes of land tenure as, under similar conditions, have proven effective in France, Germany, Ireland, and the Philippine Islands. It is to be hoped that in Mexico, also, the creation of a landholding peasantry may insure contentment and lay the foundation for a Government that is both stable and constitutional.

Spain conquered Mexico, took possession of the lands, and reduced the native inhabitants to a state of peonage or serfdom. When, in 1821, Mexico threw off the Spanish yoke and became politically independent, the people did not become industrially free. Land monopoly continued, and with it continual wars of greater or lesser extent by the landless against the landholders. This period of something over half a century preceding the second election of Diaz to the Presidency in 1884 is thus summarized by the "Encyclopædia Britannica:"

> The conflicts, which may at first sight seem to be merely between rival generals, are seen upon closer examination to be mainly (1) between the privileged classes—*i. e.*, the Church and at times the army—and the mass of the other civilized population; (2) between Centralists and Federalists, the former being identical with the army, the Church, and the supporters of despotism, while the latter represent the desire for republicanism and local self-government.

The election of Diaz was a victory for the oligarchy, and his régime was a régime of oligarchy. A little, but very little, was done for the education or the real, permanent welfare of the common people. It is estimated that about eighty-five per cent of the population is unable to read and write. But property rights were comparatively safe, and foreign capital began to enter Mexico. The economic development of the Republic proceeded rapidly. Mines were opened, railways were built, timber was cut, agriculture was carried on. But how far this economic development was for the benefit of Mexicans, how far for the benefit of absentee owners, is a question difficult to answer. It is certain that the absentee owners took the lion's share. A conservative estimate of American wealth in Mexico puts it at $1,000,000,000; British wealth in Mexico, at half that amount; and Mexican wealth, at $900,000,000. In other words, Americans and Englishmen own nearly twice as much of the wealth of Mexico as is owned by Mexicans. And the American people wonder at the prejudice entertained in Mexico against the Anglo-Saxon race!

Capital likes a strong government; the common people like a free government. Capital was satisfied; the people were not. There was no real peace, only the enforced quietude produced by oppression and repression. It was the peace of France under the Bourbons, followed by the French Revolution, and under Napoleon III, followed by the Commune. With the end of Diaz came the end of that enforced and delusive peace. Madero was elected President. He represented the masses of the Mexican people. He was a man of democratic ideals, but not of the wisdom and strength necessary to lead the people towards the realization of those ideals. After a very brief administration, he died, a victim of treachery and murder. Whether Huerta was an accessory before or after the murder is disputed and is immaterial. He took advantage of it, and became Dictator. Capital was content, and European governments, controlled by capital, promptly recognized the strong man. The United States Government did not recognize him. Neither was he recognized by the three greatest South American republics.

But the common people had tasted liberty, and promptly broke out in revolt. The strong man was not strong enough to put the revolt down. It was accompanied by excesses, sometimes savagely brutal, such as almost invariably accompany such revolutions. But despite them the revolution has steadily gained in strength, until now it controls more than half the Mexican territory, is supported by more than half the population, but is naturally dreaded by much more than half the wealth. The Tampico incident compelled our Government to modify its policy of watchful waiting and send its fleet to Vera Cruz to secure respect for our flag and to furnish some show of protection to American

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citizens. Up to that time they had been left to depend on the protection of other governments for whose flag the Mexicans have more respect than for our own.

Now there are three governments in Mexico: the military government of the United States in Vera Cruz; the oligarchic government of Huerta in southern Mexico; the revolutionary government of Carranza and Villa in northern Mexico.

This brief statement (for greater details we may refer to a review of the Mexican situation on another page) will enable our readers to understand the significance of the paragraph which we have quoted above from the statement of the New York Peace Society. Incidentally it constitutes an adequate and needed defense of the advocates of peace from the charge sometimes brought against us that we care much for peace and little for justice. It hints at, rather than describes, the fundamental cause of the civil war in Mexico, which is really one phase of a protracted labor war. Conservative in form but radical in principle, it points out, by inference rather than directly, the duty of the United States, in the statement that peace "can be permanently accomplished only by opening the way for internal reforms, and especially for such changes of land tenure as, under similar conditions, have proven effective in France, Germany, Ireland, and the Philippine Islands."

If it is the duty of the United States to promote peace in Mexico and to promote peace between Mexico and the United States, it is the duty of the United States to take such action as will help Mexico to remove the cause of civil war and the cause of her bitter prejudice against the Anglo-Saxon race. There can be no real peace, either in Mexico or between Mexico and the United States, until Mexico is put in the way of solving the two problems: (1) How to make a free government which is also a strong government; (2) How to make a republic which is industrially free as well as politically independent.

It cannot be too often asserted that justice is the only highway to peace. He is no peacemaker who seeks present peace regardless of justice; only he is a peacemaker who seeks present justice as a means of securing ultimate peace.

In the spring of 1864 Horace Greeley sought, by negotiations with representatives of the Confederacy, to secure peace between the United States and the Confederate States. He wrote to Lincoln that "our bleeding, bankrupt, almost dying country longs for peace." Mr. Lincoln, in reply, declared himself ready to consider any proposition which "embraces the restoration of peace, the integrity of the whole Union, and the abandonment of slavery." Horace Greeley was not a peacemaker; Abraham Lincoln was.

There are now only two courses open to us in Mexico. It is idle for us to say we ought not to intervene—we have intervened. And it is inconceivable that we should, for the sake of present peace, help to sustain Huerta, tottering to his fall.

We have already given to the revolutionists moral and, to some extent, practical support. Our Government has entered into negotiations with Villa and Carranza, the nature of which has not been revealed to the public. It has allowed the revolutionists to import arms and ammunition to aid them in their revolution. By seizing the port of Vera Cruz it has shut up Huerta between the army of the Constitutionalists on the north and the American army on the south. What we have done, without professing to do it—we can hardly say secretly, since the facts are known of all men—we might do openly, frankly, avowedly. We might declare ourselves the allies of the Constitutionalists, as France declared herself the ally of the Colonies in the American Revolution. We might, in a short, sharp, decisive, and probably not very bloody campaign, drive Huerta out and help the Mexican revolutionists to install Carranza in his place. By this policy we might do something, perhaps much, to overcome Mexican prejudice against the American people. This plan does not seem to us very promising, but it is possible that we might thus secure a place as friendly and forceful counselor to Carranza, and help to guide the new Government into paths of justice and fair dealing. In short, we might possibly do directly in Mexico what we have done indirectly in Cuba, and what in the last century England did in Turkey and has done in some of the principalities of India.

Or, we can say to both Huerta and the Constitutionalists: This alternating reign of anarchy and despotism must stop. We can go into Mexico with force sufficient to stop it. We can take control of Mexico, as England has control of Egypt, as the United States has control of the Philippines. And we can maintain an orderly and just govern-

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ment while, during a period which would at least last two or three generations, we are educating the people for self-government.

By either policy we should make ourselves responsible for the protection of persons and property in the Mexican territory. Germany, England, our own citizens, would have a right to look to our flag for protection against lawless violence, and the Mexican people would have a right to look to our flag for protection against robbery and murder, whether in violation of law or under the forms of law. But this is a responsibility which past history and present conditions devolve upon us. We cannot escape it. We can be faithful to our trust or recreant to our trust. But the pathway to peace lies only through the courageous and faithful fulfillment of our National duty.

COMBINATION IN INDUSTRY

Two years ago, as the result of complaints by shippers, Congress appointed a special Committee to investigate alleged combinations in the shipping trade. It has just concluded its work with the presentation of an elaborate report to Congress.

This Committee began its labors firmly convinced, first of all, that combinations to suppress competition and fix rates existed, and that such combinations were not only illegal but contrary to the public welfare.

The Committee terminated its labors with the findings that, as a matter of fact, combinations do exist, that competition is suppressed and rates are absolutely controlled; instead, however, of finding these combinations contrary to the public good, the Committee finds that their existence is highly advantageous, and recommends that they be permitted to continue in full force and effect, but that they be brought under the supervision of the Inter-State Commerce Commission.

The Committee unanimously finds:

1. That in the foreign shipping trade formal agreements and combinations exist which absolutely suppress competition and fix rates.

2. In domestic shipping trade competition is suppressed and rates are controlled by (*a*) railway ownership of shipping lines; (*b*) agreements between shipping lines; (*c*) other devices equally effective; all of which are enumerated in the report. It is needless to say that all these agreements and devices are in direct violation of the Sherman Law.

Instead, however, of recommending that proceedings be instituted to dissolve these combinations and agreements the Committee says:

> In formulating its recommendations it became apparent to the Committee, in view of all the facts presented, that only two courses of action were open for adoption. Either the agreements and understandings, now so universally used, may be prohibited with a view to attempting the restoration of unrestricted competition, or the same may be recognized along lines which would eliminate existing disadvantages and abuses.

It then refers to the many advantages enjoyed by both shippers and companies under existing conditions, and proceeds:

> These advantages, the Committee believes, can be secured only by permitting the several lines in any given trade to co-operate through some form of rate and pooling arrangement under Government supervision and control. . . . To terminate existing agreements would necessarily bring about one of two results: the lines would either engage in rate wars which would mean the elimination of the weak and the survival of the strong, or, to avoid a costly struggle, they would consolidate through common ownership. Neither result can be prevented by legislation; and either would mean a monopoly fully as effective, and, it is believed, more so, than can exist by virtue of an agreement.

We have here official recognition of the fact that combinations which absolutely suppress competition and arbitrarily fix rates and prices are not contrary to the public welfare, but, on the contrary, may be exceedingly beneficial.

With regard to the abuses of such combinations the comment of the Committee is as follows:

> While admitting their many advantages, the Committee is not disposed to recognize steamship agreements and conferences, unless the same are brought under some form of effective Government supervision. To permit such agreements without Government supervision would mean giving the parties thereto unrestricted right of action. . . . The Committee believes that the disadvantages and abuses connected with steamship agreements and conferences as now conducted are inherent, and can only be eliminated by effective Government control; and it is such control that the Committee recommends as the means of preserving to American exporters and importers the advantages enumerated, and of preventing the abuses complained of.

In order to secure the manifest benefits resulting from combinations to control the

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inter-State shipping trade and the foreign shipping trade, the Committee makes a number of recommendations, chief of which are the following:

1. That all shipping lines involved be brought under the supervision of the Inter-State Commerce Commission.

2. That such lines "be required to file for approval with the Inter-State Commerce Commission a copy of all written agreements (or a complete memorandum if the understanding or agreement is oral) entered into with any other steamship companies, firms, or lines engaged directly or indirectly in the American trade, or with American shippers, railroads, or other transportation agencies. All modifications and cancellations of such agreements or understandings as may be made from time to time should also be promptly filed. The Commission should be empowered to order canceled any such agreements, or any parts thereof, that it may find to be discriminating or unfair in character, or detrimental to the commercial interests of the United States."

3. That the Inter-State Commerce Commission be empowered to investigate complaints of unreasonable or unfair rates.

4. That rebating of rates to shippers be made illegal.

These are precisely the recommendations that have been urged upon Congress with the same force regarding inter-State trade combinations and agreements, the objects of which are to eliminate disastrous "cutthroat" competition and establish stability of prices. It has been urged again and again by economists, by experts, as well as by men whose fortunes are at stake, that the Sherman Law should be so amended as to not only permit, but encourage, the formation of associations the object of which would be to eliminate "cutthroat" competition.

And it has also been demonstrated again and again that the only protection the public needs against such associations is the supervision of an Inter-State Trade Commission, so that the proceedings of such associations might be so public that abuses could not creep in.

Nothing that has been said along these lines up to the present moment has been so forcibly put as the conclusions and recommendations of this Committee on shipping combinations.

Assuming that the recommendations of the Committee will be approved by Congress, we have, then, in this country the following state of affairs. Congress and the country approve:

Combinations of labor.
Combinations of farmers.
Combinations of foreign shipping lines.
Combinations of domestic shipping lines.
Combinations of railways in their traffic associations.

And yet at this moment Congress is exhausting its ingenuity to devise legislation to prevent precisely the same sort of co-operation between manufacturers and merchants.

Before the present session is over Congress will find itself called upon to frame laws which will forbid co-operation or combination to suppress disastrous "cutthroat" competition between manufacturers and merchants, and at the same time permit each of the above-named classes engaged in industry to enjoy the efficiency and benefits of combination and co-operation.

The clear issue in American merchandising to-day is between Combination under Control and Cutthroat Competition.

A MODERN VIEW OF THE BIBLE

I want to ask your idea of the authorship of the Pentateuch. Could Moses have been the author of the greater part of the book? I do not know that it makes very much difference whether he was or not. To some it does seem to make a difference.

It does not make much difference who was the author of the first five books of the Bible. But it makes a material difference whether you regard the Bible as one book dictated by God to amanuenses, and therefore of absolute authority in all its parts and on all subjects, or whether you regard it as a library in which is traced the development, through over a thousand years, of the ethical and spiritual experience of that nation from whom we have derived most of our religious ideals. Your question, therefore, I take as a text for restating what has often been stated in The Outlook at different times and in different forms as to this modern view of the Bible. Of course such a statement, compressed into two pages of The Outlook, must necessarily be inadequate, as compared with the statement which occupies three or four hundred pages of a book. For a fuller and more adequate statement you may be referred

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to "The Life and Literature of the Ancient Hebrews," published by Houghton Mifflin Company.

History is practically always composed of pre-existing materials. Mr. Bancroft writes a history of the United States or Mr. Froude a history of England. He goes into libraries, examines previous books, manuscripts, contemporaneous records, or, if the history deals with recent events, the author talks with individuals who are more or less familiar with the facts, and out of the information thus acquired constructs his story. Luke describes this process in the beginning of his life of Jesus. In modern times the authorities which the author has consulted are often referred to in foot-notes, and if extracts are made from previous writers, the extracts are put in quotation marks. In ancient times these mechanical devices had not yet been invented. There were neither foot-notes nor quotation marks. The authorities were incorporated in the narrative, and what the historian wrote and what he quoted from other writings were not distinguishable to the eye. If Moses wrote the Pentateuch, it is clear that he must have written the Book of Genesis in this fashion; he must have compiled it from pre-existing materials, unless, indeed, we suppose that the history prior to his birth was supernaturally revealed to him. No such supernatural revelation was claimed by the author himself nor ascribed to the author by any subsequent Biblical writers.

Modern scholars believe that all the historical books of the Bible were composed in a similar manner, and they have gone through the Pentateuch for the purpose of discovering as far as they can what were the materials from which those five books were composed. They have found very clear evidence that there are two prominent authors, one a prophetic, the other a priestly writer, whose compositions are combined in these five historical books. In the later history of Israel these two narratives are separately printed in the books known respectively as the Books of the Kings and the Books of the Chronicles. The modern view, then, of the historical books of the Old Testament may be stated in a sentence thus: The Book of Genesis is a collection of the prehistoric legends of Israel rewritten and given a spiritual significance by some unknown author, probably as an introduction to the history of Israel, which, properly speaking, begins with the exodus from Egypt; the six books which follow Genesis were written, or, more properly speaking, were compiled, by some unknown author or editor from pre-existing materials, including legends, folk-lore, and records official and otherwise. Especial use was made of the previous work of two unknown historians whose separate work appears more clearly in the Books of Kings and Chronicles.

The history of law shows that ordinarily, in its early stages, it is developed in somewhat the following fashion: First a custom grows up in a community. After a while this custom is formulated in a law or laws, either issued in an edict by a king or enacted in a statute by a legislature. Finally these laws are harmonized, and the product is a code or system of laws. Modern scholarship believes that the laws of Israel were developed in this fashion. The earliest laws were those embodied in the so-called Book of the Covenant, contained in the twentieth to the twenty-fourth chapters of Exodus, and including the Ten Commandments. These laws were almost wholly ethical. They do not prescribe, they rather discourage, any elaborate ritual. "An altar of earth thou shalt make unto me," says this law, "and shalt sacrifice thereon thy burnt offerings." If the altar of earth does not satisfy the people, they may make one of stone, provided it is not hewn stone. There is no provision for a special priesthood, nor any law prescribing any special system of sacrifices. Both the theological and the ecclesiastical code are believed by modern scholars to have grown up gradually. The elaborate ethical code embodied in the Book of Deuteronomy and the elaborate ecclesiastical code embodied in the Book of Leviticus are believed not to have reached the form therein stated until several centuries after the death of Moses.

Thus in the modern view the Old Testament Bible history is believed to be composed, as secular histories are, from pre-existing materials, and the so-called Mosaic code to be the result of the gradual development, both of civil and of Church law; and these laws are called Mosaic, not because they were given to Moses or by Moses as a completed product, but because they were developed out of the original laws given to Israel under Moses at the time of the formation of the nation.

Other books in the Old Testament are to be distinguished from these historical books

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thus: Ruth and Esther are historical fictions—that is, they are books of fiction founded on fact; Job and the Song of Solomon are in the nature of dramas, though dramas for reading rather than for acting; the Book of Psalms is the hymn-book of the Hebrew Church; the Book of the Proverbs and the Book of Ecclesiastes are books of ethical culture, with very little of theological or even distinctively spiritual instruction; the books of the prophets are writings and orations by the preachers and reformers of the nation. Thus the whole of the Old Testament is not a book, but a library of books, written at different times, and by different authors, and for different purposes.

Yet there is a unity in these writings which are bound together by something more than a bookbinder's art. They convey from different points of view what has been well called the message of Israel. I shall not attempt to comprise that message here in a sentence; but I may at least say that it includes a statement of Israel's faith, interpreted sometimes by the historian, sometimes by the lawgiver, sometimes by the dramatist, sometimes by the writer of romance, sometimes by the philosopher or preacher—the faith that God is a righteous person who demands righteousness of his children and demands nothing else, and who will help them to attain righteousness provided they honestly and sincerely seek his help. Those of us who accept this modern view of the Bible find in it two great spiritual advantages:

I. It relieves us of those perplexities which we felt when we thought all the utterances in the Old Testament of equal authority, and read the statement of Joshua that God would not forgive the sins of Israel, or the enactments in the statutes attributed to Moses justifying slavery and polygamy, or the elaborate ecclesiastical code in Leviticus flatly contradicted by eloquent passages in some of the prophets, or the assumption that this sacrificial code was given by Moses in the wilderness contradicted by the statement in Jeremiah: "Thus saith the Lord of hosts. . . . I spake not unto your fathers, nor commanded them in the day that I brought them out of the land of Egypt, concerning burnt offerings or sacrifices."

II. As a witness to the righteousness and mercy of God, coming *to* the nation from a great variety of teachers of different temperaments and in different epochs, and coming *from* the nation as a message to the world, it comes with greater authority than when we regarded it as the idiosyncratic utterances of a few exceptional men whose authority to speak for God rested largely on a traditional faith.

LYMAN ABBOTT.

LOGIC AND LIFE

The appeal to experience is often the refuge of people who have not thought their way through problems, and is resented by those who have seriously investigated those problems and are tempted to dismiss experience as an impertinent interruption to the process of thinking. If life were purely an intellectual process, the appeal to experience would be obviously a refuge of halting minds. But life is not primarily an intellectual process; it is a vital process. That it is logical in the large sense no person who believes in its divine origin can for a moment doubt; but its logic is vital, not academic, and demands a knowledge of premises and conditions which are, so far at least, beyond the reach of human investigation. Intellectual processes play an immense part in the process of life; but they are not final because they are inadequate, and they must be constantly supplemented and rectified by experiences. The whole of life, in a word, is larger than any attempt to investigate it along a special line; very much larger than any attempt to formulate it in any one field. It is not a question of the man in the street setting himself against the man in the study; it is a question of the man involved in the vital process of life bringing his knowledge to the aid of the man in the study. They cannot wisely work apart. Neither, certainly, can despise the work of the other.

Such a work as Dr. Slattery's "Authority of Religious Experience"[1] is not only immensely helpful by reason of the light it throws on a great number of difficult questions, but as an evidence of the fact that the man of experience and the man of thought are beginning to understand one another; that in the Church the scholar and the pastor are beginning to recognize that they are coworkers and that each needs the help of the other, and that out of the Church the scholar in every field needs the criticism of life; for life is, of all critics, the most unsparing and penetrating. Was it not Dr. Butler who said

[1] The Authority of Religious Experience. By Charles Lewis Slattery, D.D., Rector of Grace Church, New York. Longmans, Green & Co., New York.

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that he who follows the expert implicitly will become insane, and he who disregards the expert entirely will end in the poorhouse? This is a plain statement of the practical need of co-operation between the thinker and the man of experience. The average man feels that he has the right to speak on all matters which touch the vital experiences of life. He is perfectly willing to let the scholars settle questions of text; but when it comes to the content of thought he feels that he too is qualified to speak. If he is told that Moses did not write Deuteronomy, and that therefore the authority of the Bible is destroyed, he falls back on his experience with the Bible. He has tested it by living, and has found that of all the books open to him it is beyond comparison truest to the fact, and of all the books open to him it is beyond comparison the most illuminating. Scholars may confuse him with all manner of questions about the date and authorship of the Fourth Gospel, may overwhelm him for the moment with evidence that the Fourth Gospel is not historical, and cannot therefore be accepted as authentic; but, if he is a man whose knowledge of the Fourth Gospel is not critical but vital, questions of date and of authorship are of purely secondary importance. The basis of the authority of the Fourth Gospel does not rest on these external facts; it rests on the content of the Gospel itself. Beyond all the other Gospels he is convinced that it reveals the personality of the Master, and that no other voice could have spoken the great words which it contains. For him the authority of the Fourth Gospel is in the voice of Christ, which he hears in it more clearly than in any other Gospel; and, if he rests in this faith, sooner or later he will find the critics changing their position. For, both as regards the Bible and other books of great literature, the fundamental questions are not external but internal.

When he is told that two authors are revealed in the prophecies of Isaiah, the first effect may be to disturb the equilibrium of his faith. Now, when the prophecy of Isaiah and the words of the Great Unknown commonly called the second Isaiah are accepted by the most conservative readers of the Bible, it is clear that, while a theory and tradition have changed, the spiritual authority of Isaiah is greater than before; and, moreover, largely as a consequence of this discussion, it has dawned upon religious people that prophecy is not simply, or even primarily, predicting what God will do in the future, but rather announcing what God is doing to-day. "To believe that God is as near to us as to Isaiah and the Great Unknown is the most superb lesson prophecy has yet taught."

This admirable book makes clear in many ways the limitations of the attempt to solve the mysteries of life by logical thinking. There is, for instance, the argument from silence so often and sometimes so effectively used. Because a certain book is not mentioned for a hundred years after the date to which tradition assigns its appearance, it is assumed that the date is wrong; or because a name or an institution or an idea mentioned in one document does not appear in another document, it is held that the name, institution, or idea is an interpolation of a later hand. This method is one of the many illustrations of the mistakes to which scholars are sometimes led through lack of imagination. The man of experience knows that the silences of life are many, and that they no more mean obliteration of a fact than the morning mist means the obliteration of the landscape. Illustrations of this are found in every man's experience, and the curious blunders into which men fall from lack of knowledge of life are within every man's knowledge.

The woman who said that she believed absolutely in God so long as she did not attempt to define him also hit upon a great fact in experience. Those who hold that nothing should be believed which cannot be defined shut out from faith the larger part of the greater and more influential things in life. Most things that are formal and provisional can be defined; nothing that is vital and eternal can be defined. This great fact was understood when the second commandment was formulated. There have been a million illustrations of love; but there is not one complete definition of love. Every human being in the world to-day is an illustration of life; but there is not one final definition of life.

Such a book as "The Authority of Religious Experience" is both corrective and reassuring. It puts people on guard against the hasty and dogmatic assumptions of specialists and experts; it suggests a hundred explanations and fresh interpretations of the mystery of life. Above all, it deepens the sense of the wonder of life, of the spiritual authority of the human soul, and the significance of human experience as part of the education of life.

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MEXICO: A REVIEW

AREA

WE do not always realize that Mexico is such a large country as it is; its area almost equals that of Great Britain and Ireland, France, Germany, and Austria-Hungary together.

Nor do we realize that Mexico has a coast line of about seventeen hundred miles on the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea; while on the Pacific, including the Gulf of California, its coast line is no less than forty-five hundred miles.

Mexico is divided into twenty-seven States, three Territories, and the Federal District, which contains Mexico City.

The States bordering the Atlantic side—that is to say, on the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea—are, going from north to south, Tamaulipas, Vera Cruz, Tabasco, Campeche, Yucatán, and the Territory of Quintana.

On the Pacific side, going from north to south, are the Territory of Lower California, Sonora, Sinaloa, the Territory of Tepic, Jalisco, Colima, Michoacán, Guerrero, Oaxaca, and Chiapas.

The inland States are Chihuahua, Coahuila, Nuevo León, Durango, Zacatecas, San Luis Potosí, Aguascalientes, Guanajuato, Querétaro, Hildalgo, Mexico (a State), the Federal District (inclosed in the State of Mexico), Morelos, Tlaxcala, and Puebla.

Of the above, those which generally interest us most border our own southern frontier. From west to east, they are Lower California, with over 52,000 population, and a percentage of population per square mile of 0.8; Sonora, with a population of more than 262,000, and a population per square mile of 2.8; Chihuahua, with a population of over 405,000, and a square mile percentage of 3.7; Coahuila, with a population of nearly 368,000, and a percentage of 4.6; Nuevo León, with a population of nearly 369,000, and a percentage of no less than 13.9; finally, Tamaulipas, with a population of over 249,000, and percentage of 6.8.

POPULATION

As might be expected, Mexico City has the largest municipal population—nearly half a million souls. Then come the cities of Guadalajara and Puebla, each with over one hundred thousand; San Luis Potosí and Monterey, each with over eighty thousand; León and Merida, each with over sixty thousand.

The Spanish conquerors brought few women with them, hence, of the Mexican population, over four-fifths consist of Indians or of an Indian mixed race. From the first the Indians were apportioned with the land, as serfs among the conquerors. The Indians were subject to tribute and kept in perpetual tutelage. Their condition has changed but little.

PRODUCTION

Mexico has enormous natural resources, as may be seen from the list of exports—gold, silver, copper, oil, rubber, hides, cattle, sugar, coffee, mahogany. In addition, there are three special items of export. The first is henequen, a hemp-like fiber from which twine, cordage, hammocks, and coarse cloth are made; the next is guayule, a kind of rubber; and the third is chicle, the sap of the sapote tree, from which chewing-gum is made. It would appear that the Aztecs were the original gum-chewers!

The Mexican imports, amounting in value to about three-fifths of that of the exports, are chiefly machinery, iron and steel, textiles and manufactures, lumber, coal, coke, and vegetable oils.

One thinks of Mexico as a producer principally of mining wealth. But the value of the products of the soil and of cattle is actually greater than the annual output of precious metals. First of all among the standard crops is Indian corn, as is proper when we consider that Mexico was its original home. It is also the original home of the cattle range. Sugar, coffee, cacao, tobacco, and a marvelous variety of fruits and vegetables are also produced in abundance. But all over Mexico a good deal of the agricultural development and the trading is carried on in much the same manner as before the Spanish conquest.

CLIMATE

Climatically Mexico is very remarkable. Within the limits of an extremely small area one finds at least three different climates. The least agreeable and healthful climate is that of the low-lying region along the coasts, though there seems no reason why this

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region might not be made as healthful as we have made the coast of Cuba. But most of Mexico is an elevated plateau bordered by mountain ranges and has an admirable climate all the year, both for comfort of living and for advantage to agricultural products.

TRANSPORTATION

Mexican railway facilities are greater than is often supposed. With our own country, connections are made at a number of points on the border. There is also on the southern Mexican border through railway service into Guatemala. Of course, the main North and South Mexican Railway, penetrating the United States to the north and Guatemala to the south, will form a vital part of the coming Pan-American Railway, by which ultimately one will pass from Alaska to Patagonia.

Railways also reach into the interior of Mexico from the Gulf ports of Matamoros, Tampico, Tuxpam, Vera Cruz (two lines), Puerto Mexico, and Progreso, and from the Pacific ports of Guaymas, Mazatlán, Manzanillo, Acapulco, and Salina Cruz, the last named being the Pacific terminus of the famous Trans-Mexican Tehuantepec Railway.

Thus by reason of climate, productive capacity, and accessibility through transportation, Mexico is well fitted to become a particularly prosperous country; but it cannot as long as it does not have peace and order and at least approximately just social conditions.

GOVERNMENT

The Mexican Government is modeled somewhat on our own. It is a Federal Republic, but its executive powers have been exercised in such a way as to deprive the Government of any semblance of a really republican character. It consists of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches.

The legislative branch is represented by a Congress, consisting of a House of Representatives of 233 members and a Senate of 56 members. The members are elected by citizens, twenty-one years old if unmarried, and eighteen years old if married.

The executive branch is represented by a President and Vice-President, indirectly elected by an electoral college chosen by popular vote. The President is assisted by a Cabinet of eight members: the Secretaries of State, War and Marine, Justice, Finance, Interior, Communications, Public Instruction, and what the Mexicans call "Fomento," that is, the "encouragement" or promotion of the nation's natural resources—its forests, mines, lands, and waters.

The judicial branch is represented by a Supreme Court and by Circuit and District Courts.

The local State governments have their legislators and governors elected under rules similar to those governing the Federal elections. The States are divided into districts, each governed by a *jefe politico*, or prefect, and the districts are divided into municipalities, corresponding to our townships, and each governed by an *ayuntamiento*, or municipal council.

No adequate idea, however, of the real government of Mexico can be obtained without realizing that the people of the country are overwhelmingly Indian and illiterate.

DEFENSE

The Mexican army has a war strength supposed to total 84,000 members of all ranks; it is very difficult, however, to tell just what exists on paper and what exists in reality. General Huerta recently claimed that the Government had 150,000 men in the regular army! Then there are, of course, the "irregulars."

Mexico may be said to have no navy; its naval force consists of five gunboats and two transports.

EDUCATION

Education in Mexico is supposed to be free and compulsory, but so far it has hardly affected the native population at all; indeed, only a very small proportion of the total population can read and write. One great need is the introduction of more elementary schools absolutely free from any suspicion of ecclesiastical influence. Special schools for engineering, agriculture, law, and medicine are supported by the Federal Government, and most of the States support one technical college.

RELIGION

The prevailing religion in Mexico is Roman Catholic; but the Church is technically independent of the State. There are probably about fifty thousand Protestants in the country (in great part foreigners), and there is toleration of all religions.

FOREIGNERS IN MEXICO

There are more United States citizens in Mexico than any other foreigners. It is

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supposed that nearly a hundred thousand Americans have, until the present exodus of foreigners, been engaged in the various Mexican industries. With the increasing condition of unrest there has been an increasing demand from our citizens of some measure of protection from our Government for their lives and property.

Among the foreigners in Mexico, next to the number of our own citizens there, come, in order, the Spaniards, Guatemalans, French, British, Cubans, Germans, Italians, Chinese, and Japanese.

MEXICAN HISTORY

1519. Cortés enters Mexico, takes it from its Aztec inhabitants, and captures Montezuma, the Aztec Emperor.

1521. Mexico formally annexed to Spain.

1521–1821. Sixty-four governors and viceroys rule Mexico, or "New Spain," as it was called.

1553. The University of Mexico opened.

1767. The Jesuits expelled.

1810. Hidalgo, a patriot priest, heads an outbreak and declares Mexico independent.

1811. Hidalgo shot. Morelos, another priest, continues the movement, overruns most of Mexico, convokes a Congress, and issues a Constitution.

1815. Morelos executed, and Spanish rule continues.

1821. Iturbide declares Mexico independent.

1822. The Mexican Congress elects Iturbide Emperor.

1823. Iturbide abdicates.

1824. Iturbide executed. A Constitution proclaimed. Victoria President.

1828–1831. Guerrero President.

1831. Guerrero executed.

1833–1837. Santa Anna President.

1836. Houston and his Texans capture Santa Anna at the Battle of San Jacinto, and compel him to sign a treaty recognizing Texan independence.

1846. War with the United States. Mexicans defeated at Palo Alto, Resaca, and Monterey.

1847. Santa Anna defeated at Buena Vista, near Saltillo. General Scott captures Vera Cruz (March) and proceeds to Mexico City (April–August), which he captures (September).

1848. Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, which cedes to the United States Texas, New Mexico, and Upper California, in return for a payment of $15,000,000 by the United States to Mexico.

1857. A new Mexican Constitution proclaimed.

1858–1861. Two rival governments—the Republicans at Vera Cruz under Juarez, the Reactionaries at Mexico City under Miramon.

1859. Juarez is recognized by the United States. President Buchanan recommends intervention. The McLane-Juarez Treaty concluded, giving the United States a kind of disguised protectorate over Mexico. The American Senate does not ratify the treaty.

1861. Miramon overthrown; Juarez enters Mexico City. Great Britain, France, and Spain intervene. Vera Cruz occupied by British, French, and Spanish troops.

1863. The French occupy Mexico City. The Mexican Provisional Government offers the crown to Archduke Maximilian of Austria, brother of Emperor Francis Joseph.

1866. Mr. Seward, American Secretary of State, induces Napoleon III to promise a withdrawal of the French forces. Juarez proclaims himself President of Northern Mexico.

1867. Maximilian shot by order of Juarez. Porfirio Diaz captures Puebla and Mexico City. Juarez elected President.

1872. Juarez dies.

1872–1876. Lerdo President.

1876. Diaz overthrows Lerdo.

1876–1880. Diaz President.

1880–1884. Gonzalez President.

1884–1911. Diaz President.

1906. The Tehuantepec Railway opens.

1907. Treaty of Washington, by which Mexico associates herself with the United States in preserving peace among the Central American republics.

1910. The Madero revolution.

1911. (May) Diaz resigns. Francesco de la Barra President *ad interim*. (November) Madero President.

1913. (February) Madero slain. Huerta Dictator.

1913. (August) John Lind goes to Mexico as President Wilson's personal representative.

1913. (October) Henry Lane Wilson resigns as American Ambassador to Mexico.

1914. (April) The Americans occupy Vera Cruz.

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THE ARMY MAKES A CONVERT

BY HAROLD TROWBRIDGE PULSIFER

I MET him in the great dining-hall of a New York club. He was on his way back to Jonesboro, he told me, and the friend who introduced us added the information that in his home city Mr. Jones was President of a local Board of Trade, a prosperous merchant, and a political factor of county-wide importance. He was returning from Washington, I also learned, where he had been "pulling a few wires" in behalf of a new post-office building for his own city, "bigger than anything within fifty miles." He showed me a petition signed by all the leading citizens of Jonesboro, and a letter from his Congressman promising to give the matter "his carefullest consideration," but "regretting that the Mexican situation made it imperative that the utmost economy be practiced in regard to local appropriations."

"I told him," said Mr. Jones, "that the Jonesboro situation was what interested *us*, and that it would interest him too most likely when the November elections came round."

Over the coffee and cigars Mr. Jones dilated on his views of the army. The text of his sermon he found ready at hand in the war news that filled to overflowing the front page of his evening paper.

"It's a funny thing, this soldier business," he said. "Here we have an army of a hundred thousand men sitting round in idleness from one end of the year to the other, just asking Congress for money, money, money! If they were only doing something useful, I wouldn't grudge them their pay. But what good are they, anyhow? If war comes, we have got a hundred million people to draw from that can knock the spots out of anything we are likely to fight. Why, they tell me that at our army posts most of our soldiers spend their time cutting grass, carrying ashes, giving tomfool salutes, and pacing up and down with a gun guarding a bunch of buildings no one wants to hurt if he could. Why don't they use watchmen and time-clocks and save the taxpayers' money? What good are sentries when there is no one to shoot?"

As I reached for a second lump of sugar for my coffee I made a mental comparison of the soldier's existence as Mr. Jones had described it and as I had had the good fortune to see it in army posts and maneuver camps. I called to mind the record of the Seventh Cavalry and that of the Ninth Infantry in the Philippines, the description friends had given me of the work of the field artillery among the hills at Fort Ethan Allen, and the pictures other friends had drawn for me of the work of the troops along the Mexican frontier. I remembered the target practice I had witnessed with the great thick-lipped mortars that guard the approach to New York Harbor.

"So you think," I asked, "that the regular army is an incumbrance in time of peace, and that in time of war its place can be quickly filled by volunteers?"

"Something like that," he confessed.

"How about the building of the Panama Canal, the discovery of the method by which yellow fever has been practically exterminated, the positive tests our soldiers have made of the value of the anti-typhoid vaccine, the relief extended by the War Department to the flood sufferers along the Mississippi Valley? How do you account for the fact" (here I caught a glimpse of his evening paper) "that six troops of regular cavalry are expected to put down an industrial insurrection which the whole civil government of the State of Colorado, backed by its entire organized militia, has failed to suppress?"

"Maybe they know how to shoot," he answered, replying to my last question.

"Exactly," I said; "they know how to shoot because they have been trained how to shoot. They have taught us how to care for our health because they have learned to take care of their own. Their engineers know how to organize the greatest constructive achievements of all time because they have lived under the discipline of an organization that has taught them, not only how to think clearly, but to depend on team play for success. When it comes to an industrial insurrection, army officers are obeyed because they know how to obey. How much do you know of military discipline?"

"Not much," he said, with a smile. "The only time I ever had anything to do with it was once when I got up a petition asking our Congressman to use his influence to have our

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Mayor's son put back in West Point. He was fired for going to New York over Sunday. 'Absent without leave,' they call it. The President reinstated him in short order."

"Suppose he was 'absent without leave' from the firing-line?"

"Oh, that's different," Mr. Jones protested; "he would do better in time of war."

"Perhaps he would," I admitted, "and perhaps not. Soldiers in time of war can't trust themselves to the intent to do right, however sincere. The mistake of one man may mean the lives of a thousand. It is the instinctive habit of obedience that military science demands. An apology is poor comfort for the dead."

Mr. Jones evidently felt himself the victim of a lecture he had not invited. "Well," he said finally, after a somewhat awkward pause, "that may be so. But even then I do not see how our soldiers kill time waiting for war."

I pulled out my watch. "Would you be willing to spend twenty-four hours of your time learning how they do it?"

"I might," he said, half doubtfully. "I have to be in Jonesboro by Thursday afternoon—" I did not hear the end of his sentence, for I was already on my way to the telephone. When I returned, Mr. Jones had left the table. I found him in the coat-room unchecking his valise. Whether he was hoping to escape or not, I do not know, for I did not wait for an explanation. "Mr. Jones," I said, "I have made arrangements for us to spend to-morrow with an army officer I know at Fort ——. Our train leaves the Pennsylvania station in fifteen minutes. We must hurry if we are to catch it." Before Mr. Jones could object we were off.

Late that evening we drove up to the guard-house of the fort. Ten minutes more and we entered the hospitable home of my friend, a captain in the Coast Artillery. I explained more fully than had been possible over the telephone the purpose of our somewhat sudden visit, and then turned the still dubious Mr. Jones over to the tender mercies of the army, represented in the person of my friend. We were told that orders had been received from the district commander that the seven companies of Coast Artillery that comprised the garrison of the fort were to begin their annual month of infantry field exercises the following morning. This meant that we were not to see any practice with the mortars and twelve-inch rifles; but I comforted myself with the thought that Mr. Jones would find greater opportunity for exercise in following the troops over Long Island than in sitting upon the grassy slope that sheltered the gun-pits from the sight and fire of a possible hostile fleet. I knew that Mr. Jones was in for some activity, at least, when I learned that the captain whose hospitality we were enjoying was detailed as officer of the day for the succeeding twenty-four hours. I was still surer when I had secured Mr. Jones's promise to follow the captain everywhere he was permitted to go.

Mr. Jones expressed a desire for sleep. As he went upstairs to his room with unsuspecting cheerfulness he said, "Have me called when you get up, Captain; I'll be ready."

I looked at my watch, and then, knowing the peripatetic and nocturnal habits of officers of the day, asked, "How long has he to sleep?"

"About one hour and a half," said my host.

At half-past one we—the O. D., myself, and a surprised but very silent gentleman by the name of Jones—walked out into the warm April night. Mr. Jones was evidently determined to see the matter through with the best grace that he could muster, though he would undoubtedly have liked to see me at the bottom of Long Island Sound. We had gone but a short distance along the road leading to the parade-ground when a gray shadow moved out from the blackness of a clump of trees.

"Halt! Who is there?"

"Officer of the day."

"Advance, officer of the day, to be recognized." Holding his rifle at advance, the sentry awaited the officer until the light from an overhanging lamp made his identity certain. Then the sentry presented arms and called, "Advance, officer of the day." We too were then permitted to go forward. We waited while the O. D. examined the sentry as to his knowledge of general and special orders, his duty in case of fire, and as to what he would do if more than one party were to approach his post at the same time. As we moved off it was too dark to see the expression on the face of Jonesboro's leading citizen; but evidently he had been turning over in his mind the questions and answers which the O. D. had asked and received.

"Does a sentry have to repeat all those

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orders and questions every time he is inspected?"

"Certainly," said the O. D. "A sentry is not only a watchman set to guard Government property from fire and theft; he is a man who at any time may be called upon to protect by his vigilance the safety and lives of hundreds, if not thousands, of men. He must know his duties so well that he will not have to think when an emergency arises, but can do the right thing instinctively."

"What did he make us stand back for while you went ahead alone?"

"A man with a gun is the superior of a man without a gun only so long as he keeps the latter at a distance. A sentry can always guard himself against one man coming on alone. Two men might overpower him, take away his gun, and stab him to death before he could even give the alarm."

"You've got it all worked out to a fine point, haven't you?" said Mr. Jones, and lapsed into silence.

Four more sentries challenged were catechised, saluted, and passed, and then, as we swung back from the end of the post to catch the sentries guarding the land approaches to the fort, I heard Mr. Jones muttering under his breath, "Maybe a time-clock wouldn't be best, after all."

We went through the guard-house, where the prisoners were sleeping on beds of taut canvas hung on a metal framework, surrounded by an iron cage that filled the center of the guard-room to within two feet of its walls. The place was spotlessly clean, even if the air was somewhat close. We watched the O. D. check up the list of men confined and the list of men absent from the post with leave who had reported their return at the guard-house, and then went on to the last sentry post that it was "our" duty to inspect. To the west the distant lights of the city of New York showed against the sky like a promise of morning. Across the Sound a few street lights faintly shone. Nearer at hand a Government tug, her riding lights clear cut against the blackness of the night, lay quietly at anchor. The great civilian city in the distance, making itself felt by the luminous halo that enshrouded it, brought home to our minds the purpose of the great guns that slept in the darkness of the hill above.

"How many men are there in the fort?" asked Mr. Jones.

"Just enough to completely man one-half of the guns in place," said the O. D. "If war should come, we would have to depend on the militia Coast Artillery to fill up our ranks. When the defenses in the Philippines, at Honolulu, and at Panama are completed and properly manned, there will be just enough soldiers and officers in my branch of the service left to make one-quarter of one relief for our guns. If we are ordered to Mexico, practically the whole East coast will be stripped of its defenses. If European complications should arise—"

"There would be the navy," suggested Mr. Jones.

"Which has already fallen to the third class among the fleets of the world," said the O. D. "In a little while even that position bids fair to be disputed by both France and Japan. Moreover, the fleet would have plenty to do operating offensively. It ought not to have its strategic value destroyed by being turned into a coast patrol."

"I don't believe in a big standing army," said Mr. Jones, rather abruptly.

"Neither do I," said the O. D., with equal conviction; "and there doesn't seem much danger of our ever having one. The United States, with a population of nearly one hundred million people, has about one soldier for every eleven hundred inhabitants. You may happen to know New York City requires double that proportion of police to keep peace within its borders. Furthermore, we have no reserves. Germany has one soldier, roughly speaking, for every one hundred civilians; Japan and England, one for each two hundred civilians; and some of these countries, if their reserves were called to the colors, could depend upon having one trained soldier for every fifteen civilians. You see, the danger of military domination in this country is not particularly imminent."

By this time we had approached the sentry whose post lay between the dock and the guard-house. He stood in full view under the light of an overhanging lamp. We got well within the regulation thirty paces before he saw fit to challenge us.

"What do you mean by letting us get so close?" called the O. D., sharply. "How long have you been in the service?"

"A month, sir," said the soldier, presenting arms.

"How many times have you been on sentry duty?"

"Once before, sir," said the sentry.

A rapid series of questions followed, and then a clear and concise definition of the

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duties and responsibilities of a sentry. As we moved off into the night Mr. Jones said, in the pride of his newly acquired knowledge of military discipline, "Why, I could have taken his gun away from him myself!" And then, "What will happen to him, sir?"

"Nothing this time," said the O. D. "To send a new recruit to the guard-house might break his pride and lead to the spoiling of a good soldier. We try to handle as many offenses as possible by company discipline—confinement to barracks or extra fatigue duty. The whole system of army discipline is tending towards the encouragement of right action rather than the repression of wrong-doing by punishment. Even the men guilty of serious military offenses and confined in our prisons are now given a chance to win back their right to their uniforms and to an honorable discharge from the army. We distinguish as far as possible between soldiers guilty of military offenses and those guilty of offenses that would be crimes against a civil government. Our ideal is at present the graduation of as many men as possible from military into civil life, trained to care for their bodies and their characters under the exacting conditions of war, who will in time become the backbone of that reserve we hope some day to see fully organized. We believe that military discipline is the best training a citizen can have, and we try to make that training a really vital factor in the lives of our troops."

We reached the Captain's house in silence one hour from the time we had left it. With his hand on his bedroom door Mr. Jones turned and asked, "And the next call, Captain?"

"Half-past six."

"I'll be ready," said the President of the Jonesboro Board of Trade.

I did not go out with Mr. Jones on his second tour of inspection, for I felt that his education would proceed rapidly enough without any civilian assistance. When he returned for breakfast, he had made another tour of the sentry posts, had watched the ceremonies attending the raising of the colors, had seen the forming of the guard, the callisthenic drill of all the troops on the post, had watched the soldiers scatter fanwise over the parade-ground in search of any stray papers that might mar the appearance of the trim lawn that surrounded their barracks, and then had seen them go back to their mess-hall for breakfast. He had seen the dozen and more prisoners at the guard-house line up for inspection and watched their simple but wholesome food in preparation, and had learned to distinguish between the black suits of men under sentence of dishonorable discharge and the blue working clothes of the short-time prisoner who would soon be restored to military privileges and duties.

"And now," asked Mr. Jones, as he finished his breakfast, "when does the day's work begin?"

"Well," replied the O. D., "we are taking things easy just at present. The men are not hardened to the longer marches we will have later in the month. To-day we start within the hour for a six-mile hike, to be followed by simple company evolutions in attack upon an indicated position. There is a fine neck of woods two miles from the post, flanked on either side by a swamp. We shall post a few squads of soldiers across one end under cover and then, after sending in scouts to draw their fire and expose their position, we will advance against them with the rest of the company. Will you come with us?"

"Can I charter an automobile?" asked Mr. Jones, visions of a six-mile hike filling his mind to the exclusion of his promise to stick by the troops.

"Better than that, you can take my own," said the O. D. "Our friend here can run it moderately well"—he smiled at me—"or at least well enough to get you out to the woods and back again in time for lunch. You know, a man who wants to understand soldier-life ought to be willing to take a few risks."

Our plan for the morning agreed upon, we went out to the barracks to see our Captain's company "off for the front." We saw the men fall in at the word of command and then form in column of squads and disappear down the road at a swinging gait ill adapted for the general run of editors and presidents of boards of trade.

Two hours later we drew up (after a somewhat awkward adventure with a civilian cow that shall have no place in this story of a military pilgrimage) at the neck of woods designated for the maneuvers. The squads of soldiers who were to indicate the line of resistance we found already in position under command of a second lieutenant. Each soldier lay protected by a pile of rocks or a tree, alertly watching the woody slope before him. In their olive-drab uniforms, they were hardly to be distinguished from the brown earth on

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which they lay. The lieutenant with two sergeants went forward to determine how well his troops were concealed.

"Not there," we heard him call. "Number four from the right, shift your gun to the other side of that tree. Never fire around the left side of an obstacle. Fire from the right side, so that your body will be protected." Then, satisfied with the result of his inspection, he went back to his troops.

A half-hour passed, and then through the distant trees we saw a soldier, his rifle at trail, advancing slowly and cautiously. Then two others appeared, forming as they came a triangle, its base towards us and its apex towards the distant edge of the woods. Closer and closer they came, until the lieutenant, drawing his Colt automatic, ordered them to surrender. The two soldiers in advance under the technical menace of twenty rifles came into the lines and laid down their guns. The third soldier retired as rapidly as the ground permitted, firing his piece as he retreated. The object of the reconnaissance had been achieved, at a cost of two men captured, for the position of the defense had been disclosed.

Now a line of soldiers under command of our friend the Captain appeared and deployed as skirmishers at a distance of some four hundred yards. We watched them through our field-glasses as they advanced, each soldier taking advantage of whatever cover offered, alertly watching for the first sign of the enemy, whose position he already knew. The order to "halt" was given, then "Fire at will!" and along the line of soldiers broke out a rattling volley that drew a quick response from the squad of soldiers back of whose position we were placed. A second advance was ordered, and then, under a fusillade that would have left many gaps in their ranks, the company charged forward. As they broke through the last strip of trees the bugle sounded, "Cease firing!" and the battle was over.

A brief rest followed, and then the united company, boots caked with mud from the swamp through which they had made their attack, formed in a column and marched off to the fort. As we moved off slowly towards the machine Mr. Jones remarked, "Well, the devil hasn't found many idle hands around this neck of woods—unless they are my own."

We reached the fort just ahead of the soldiers, and went at once to the barracks of the company whose maneuvers we had been watching. Under the guidance of the second lieutenant whom we had watched defending his position in the woods, we went down into the mess-hall and kitchen to see the preparations for dinner, consisting of bread, onions, potatoes, beans, and coffee. The cook, an ex-sergeant, opened his oven and drew out a great steaming tray of beans. He dipped out a heaping plateful for Mr. Jones and myself even against that gentleman's protest of "I never could eat all those!" Before I had finished my share I found Mr. Jones being helped to a second plate.

"We give our boys the best food soldiers get in any army," said the sergeant. "I know, for I served three years in Germany before I came over."

"How did you happen to be selected as company cook?" asked Mr. Jones.

"I asked for the detail, sir. You see, I have held every position open to a non-commissioned officer, and I wanted to learn how to cook before I left the army. I expect to do a lot of camping when I get out."

"What about work around the barracks—carrying ashes and cutting grass and such things?" The lieutenant had moved out of hearing, and Mr. Jones was speaking to the ex-sergeant, with no chance that his reply would be overheard by his superior officer. "What do the soldiers think about that?"

"Well, sir, that work has to be done here, just the same as outside the post. An army can't live that don't know how to feed itself and burn its refuse and keep itself clean. It's all in a day's work. Maybe there is more of it than some like, but we would have to do a great deal of that kind of work even if we were in camp in time of war."

"I only asked for information," said Mr. Jones; "I read something about it in a weekly paper."

"Well, sir," said the ex-sergeant, "if you mean the paper I mean, the enlisted men on this post have had it stopped from coming to their Young Men's Christian Association rooms. That's what they think about those articles, sir!"

As we left the kitchen we met the O. D. coming in. "What's on the carpet next?" asked Mr. Jones.

"The next thing on the carpet," said the Captain, with a smile, "is an inspection of feet."

We followed the O. D. into the shower-

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bath room and watched the company line up for inspection. Each man as he passed the Captain lifted his feet and turned them so that they might be seen from heel to toe. If a blister, a crack, or a rubbed spot showed, the man was listed for attention in the hospital. "If we didn't do this," said the Captain, "it would mean that one-tenth of our troops would be incapacitated for service the second day out. An army with sore feet means an army that cannot move, and an army that cannot move is more ornamental than useful."

We left the barracks and went back to the Captain's home. Lunch followed, and after that we went down to the stone casemates in the old Civil War part of the fortifications and watched the non-commissioned officers at target practice with the new Colt automatic, which has recently been issued to replace the old .38-caliber revolver. Experience in the Philippines showed the army that the .38-caliber revolver lacked the stopping power required for a weapon to be used chiefly in short-range fighting. Then Mr. Jones spent another hour watching gallery-practice in the basement of the post exchange. When we left, he looked regretfully at his watch. "Captain," he said, "I suppose the day is still young for you, but I've got to get back to New York this afternoon to catch the evening train for home. Besides that, I've got to send a telegram to Washington. I'll mail you a copy of it. You might be interested. I'm real sorry I can't stay any longer. Thank you, and good-by."

On the ride to the station Mr. Jones was very silent, and I did not try to interrupt his thoughts. His lips, I noticed, kept moving as though he was preparing a stump speech. When we reached the telegraph office, he went at once to the desk and wrote with hardly a second's hesitation a message the wording of which evidently gave him considerable satisfaction. Then he handed it to me. This is what I read:

House of Representatives,
Washington, D. C.
Representative —— :

Disregard petition of Jonesboro voters. Am going home to explain. If a vote for our pink tasseled post-office means a vote against military supplies, it also means a vote against you.

(Signed) SILAS JONES.

THE WHEATLAND HOP-FIELDS' RIOT

BY GEORGE L. BELL

ATTORNEY FOR THE COMMISSION OF IMMIGRATION AND HOUSING OF CALIFORNIA

The following article is the result of several weeks' correspondence with various people in California which we have carried on in an endeavor to obtain a judicial statement of the facts connected with what we believe to be one of the most significant labor battles of the time. In sending the article Mr. Bell writes us as follows:

"Inclosed is the article on the Wheatland hop-fields' riot, sent in accordance with our arrangement by letter and telegram. I feel that in order to do justice, not only to myself, but to all parties concerned, and to readers generally, all the factors, problems, and questions involved in the incident must be brought out at least briefly. Many prejudiced reports which failed to touch on the real issues have appeared in the press. The facts in connection with the conditions in the camp, the attitude of the pickers, and the report of the trial are of course absolutely essential. Moreover, these facts have merely a news interest or significance without an accompanying statement of the questions that have been, and are, live topics of popular discussion in California. By way of explanation I wish to say that I am the attorney for the Commission of Immigration and Housing of California, and as such was present at Marysville during most of the trial and have personally taken part in and superintended the collection of evidence as to sanitary and wage conditions. If you publish

(Continued on page following illustrations)

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the article over my name, will you state that it is in no way an official or authorized statement by the Commission itself, but only my individual statement? The Commission has not yet published its report of the incident."

Mr. Bell's dispassionate statement of facts ought to arrest the attention of every serious-minded man, especially of the large employer of labor. Barbarous conditions of life produce men with barbarous traits, and the shocking conditions of work in the Wheatland hop-fields are unfortunately too common in various kinds of labor in this country. Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., has said that the fundamental issue of labor troubles in this country is the maintenance of constitutional law and order. It is true that law and order are essential to the permanence of society; but we think the fundamental issue in the relations of capital and labor is the maintenance of elementary humane conditions of life and work. To violate these as they were violated at Wheatland, and as we think they have been to a considerable extent in Colorado and in the coal-fields of Pennsylvania and West Virginia, is the surest way to bring on a disastrous social and economic revolution in this country which written constitutions and statutes will be powerless to resist.—THE EDITORS.

ON a desolate, sun-baked field, in the intense heat of summer, there was enacted last year in California an isolated and morbid tragedy which, from a subject for excited ranchers' gossip, has sprung with a mysterious, alchemic force into State and Nation wide prominence. The "Wheatland hop-fields' riot," together with the subsequent trial for murder of the instigators of the riot of August 3, 1913, is to-day the pivotal point in the study and discussion of the great problem of migratory labor; and it is the fulcrum of the movement begun by the California authorities to deal with the peculiar questions presented by the mighty army of seasonal workers in the State. The United States Commission on Industrial Relations has said, "The riot on the Durst ranch is a California contribution to the literature of the social unrest in America." Yet the facts and problems involved are not generally known; therefore it is the aim of this article to give a concise and careful presentation of the facts and a broad outline of the problems, as a basis and suggestion for further and more detailed analysis by students of such subjects.

California is primarily an agricultural and not an industrial State; but some of the farms are run on such a large scale that they present all the social and economic problems of an industry. For example, on the Durst hop ranch at Wheatland about two thousand people are employed every year for a period of three or four weeks to pick the hops. It was on this ranch that the incident known as the "hop-fields' riot" occurred in August, 1913, and at that time the report of the Commission of Immigration and Housing of California states that there were "about twenty-eight hundred men, women, and children" employed as pickers, who camped on the ranch in an open field. The camp consisted of a collection of tents and "bull-pens," or gunny sacks stretched over fences, huddled together without system or order. The evidence produced at the subsequent trial showed that from one-third to one-half of the pickers were foreigners, including Syrians, Mexicans, Italians, Porto Ricans, Poles, Hindus, and Japanese. The American element was made up of wandering casual workers—poor people from near-by cities, owners of small hill ranches, roving hoboes, and a few families of the better laboring class from towns and cities who often go to the fruit and hop ranches for their summer "vacation." Of the pickers from eight hundred to one thousand were women and children. Advertisements had been scattered broadcast throughout California, Nevada, and southern Oregon stating that picking would begin about August 1, and by July 30 this entire crowd was on the ground.

In view of the numbers that could have been expected, comparatively little or no preparation was made by the ranch management in the way of housing or sanitation. Tents were rented for seventy-five cents a week; but there were not enough to go round. There was no segregation of the single men or family groups. One witness stated that the first two nights he slept in the open field on a big pile of straw, together with a mixed group of forty or fifty men, women, and children. No provision had been made for the disposal of garbage, and the wells were not

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carefully boarded over and fixed to avoid pollution from surface drainage; many witnesses asserted that there was not sufficient drinking water. But the entire lack of preparation in this connection is most unhappily exemplified by the utter inadequacy of the toilet facilities. As many new latrines were erected within a day or two after the riot, the estimates of the number before the riot vary; but a careful average taken from the testimony during the subsequent trial and from reports of investigators shows that there were not more than eleven, nor less than eight, latrines for twenty-eight hundred people, each latrine accommodating two persons.

Considering the usual unclean and careless habits of such a motley crowd, it is easy to realize how, in the terrific heat—averaging 105° or 106° in the shade—these few toilets soon became so foul and dirty that they were not fit for use. The details of the evidence in this regard are so revolting that they can scarcely be printed. Witness after witness has testified that the toilets were used by men and women indiscriminately, and often there were from fifteen to twenty women and children waiting in lines to get into the toilets. The rough structures were soon befouled and filled with flies. The humiliation and hardship experienced by the pickers in connection with this insanitary feature of the camp were undoubtedly the main factors in bringing on the protest meetings and the subsequent riot.

No garbage-cans were placed in the camp, and the garbage and refuse were scattered over the ground. Much of this garbage was thrown in small ponds of water which had collected in sump-holes around two of the wells. This disintegrating mass of refuse was not only a source of pollution for the drainage back into the well and a feeding-place for millions of blue flies, but it also caused an unbearable stench throughout the camp.

Even when the people went into the fields to pick hops they were subjected to further unnecessary hardships. The customary movable toilets were not provided, though the fields where the picking was going on were over a mile from the camp, and men, women, and children were forced to relieve themselves among the vines, which afforded little or no privacy. Futhermore, during the four sweltering days before the riot no drinking water was furnished in the fields; it had to be carried out by the pickers in bottles or jugs. This water became hot and unpalatable within an hour or two. An ironical fact which added to this hardship was disclosed when it was proved that a cousin of Durst, the owner of the ranch, had a concession for selling lemonade in the fields for five cents a glass! Futhermore, several witnesses, including the local druggist's clerk, testified that this lemonade was made largely of citric acid.

It was also shown that Durst shared the profits of a man who drove a "stew," or lunch wagon, through the fields, and who carried drinking water, but served it only to those who could afford to buy lunches.

In due time, and as a natural result of these insanitary conditions, sickness developed. There is evidence that dysentery was prevalent in the camp after two or three days, and there are recorded instances not only of malarial fever but of typhoid.

The grumbling and camp-fire discussions that grew out of the general discontent of the pickers crystallized into a search for further reasons for complaint, and an apparently substantial ground was found in the wage system. The advertisement for pickers stated that the "going price" would be paid, with "a bonus to all pickers helping us and doing satisfactory work to the completion of the season." According to the general testimony of pickers and employers, the "going price" for hop-picking in California in 1913 was $1 per 100 pounds. The Durst management, however, on the days preceding the riot gave out a check for each 100 pounds picked which could be cashed in for only 90 cents, and a 10-cent "bonus" was to be added if the picker stayed the season through. So the "bonus" would seem to have been rather a hold-back out of the "going" hop-picking wage. If a picker had left before the end of the hop-picking season, this "bonus" would have accrued to the employer. Furthermore, the pickers claimed that they had to be so unusually careful in picking to keep the hops free from leaves and stems that, as many stated, they were able to pick only 100 or 150 pounds a day, while on most ranches they were able to pick from 250 to 400 pounds a day. Some extracts from the books of the Durst ranch showed earnings for a day as low as 90 cents, 92 cents, and $1.11.

All the facts outlined above have been brought out in the course of a thorough investigation made by the Commission of Immigration and Housing of California.

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Finally, the inevitable happened. The pickers, brooding over their wrongs, met in an informal protest meeting on the evening of August 2. Fathers and mothers of families full of indignation, laborers fired with the resentment of class consciousness, hoboes and revolutionaries keen for any demonstration or struggle—all collected, without orders or organization, in the summer twilight. Inflammatory speeches were made, and the living and wage conditions were denounced. Durst, the owner, happened by in his automobile. He was hissed, and there were mumbled threats. Durst refused to deal with the crowd, and asked that a committee come to him the next morning with a formal list of complaints.

Then events followed each other in rapid succession. The next day at ten o'clock (it was a calm Sunday morning) a committee, headed by "Blackie" Ford (an ex-Industrial Worker of the World, and later convicted of murder), presented to Durst formal, detailed demands for improvement of camp conditions and a raise in the rate of wages to $1.25 straight per 100 pounds. Durst, after being given time to consider, said that he would try to improve the camp conditions, but would not raise the rate of wages. Shortly afterward, in the presence of a crowd, Durst ordered Ford to leave the ranch and flicked him in the face with a glove. A deputy officer from Wheatland attempted later to arrest Ford as a trespasser, but failed, as he did not have the warrant demanded by Ford. People jostled and jeered the officer, and he drew a revolver to force the crowd back. An excitable Italian, jumping in front of a girl and baring his breast, cried, "Don't shoot a girl—shoot me!" and the mind of the crowd was fired by this first display of violence.

The pickers gathered in excited groups during the early afternoon. One witness testified that there was one small meeting, with "Blackie" Ford present, where some one said, "If the officers come to get us, let them start, and we will finish them!" At a general meeting about two o'clock in the afternoon Industrial Workers of the World songs were sung, and Ford and other speakers urged the crowd to stick "together" and hold out for all their demands.

Later, at five o'clock, a larger meeting of practically all the pickers was held at the dance platform. The crowd had been harangued by several "soap-box" orators, several Industrial Workers of the World songs were sung, and Ford had held a sick baby up before the crowd, crying out, "It's for the kids we're doing this!" While he was speaking two automobiles drove up, and the sheriff and district attorney of Yuba County with a posse of deputies alighted. District Attorney Manwell, Sheriff Voss, and his deputy Reardon made their way into the crowd. Voss requested the people to disperse. In reply to some mutterings Manwell raised his hand and shouted, "Keep the peace, boys; keep the peace!" Reardon pointed toward Ford and said, "There's your man, sheriff. I have the warrant this time." As the officers made their way toward Ford the crowd closed in, a bench on which some men were standing crashed down, blows were struck, a club swung through the air, a deputy on the edge of the crowd fired a shot over their heads "to intimidate" them (he later explained), then a volley of shots rang out, and for a brief three minutes pandemonium reigned. Part of the posse fought its way back to the automobiles and managed to escape, one deputy was chased by an infuriated mob to the ranch store, where he barricaded himself. And when the crowd had scattered the prostrate form of Sheriff Voss, who had been clubbed into unconsciousness, and the dead bodies of District Attorney Manwell, Deputy Reardon, and two unknown pickers (a Porto Rican and an Englishman) were stretched upon the ground.

All through the night the frightened pickers fled from the gruesome spot. By dawn a detachment of State militia arrived and calm was restored.

Then followed weeks and months of search throughout the Pacific Coast States for the ringleaders of the crowd and for those directly responsible for the shooting. Many arrests were made through the agency of private detectives, and many suspects, caught in the drag-net cast into the ranks of vagrancy, were held for long periods without a hearing before a magistrate, and then dismissed. In one instance a man named Brady was so held for seventy-five days. There were many accusations that "third degree" methods were used by the private detectives, and one of these detectives was actually convicted and sent to the penitentiary for brutally beating one of the prisoners. All this led to bitterness and vilification. A Defense Committee was organized to arouse sympathy for the prisoners and raise funds for the conduct of the trials; pamphlets full of

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accusations and recrimination were issued; and gradually the situation came to be regarded as a general issue between capital and labor, with the "interests" lined up on one side and the "workers" on the other.

Finally, in January, 1914, four men—Beck, Bagan, Ford, and Suhr—were brought to trial, charged with the murder of District Attorney Manwell. The trial took place in Marysville, the county seat of Yuba County, a change of venue being denied. Marysville is a sleepy country town, and, though there had been great excitement, particularly over the murder of the popular District Attorney, yet by January there was little demonstration of any intense feeling, and the townspeople did not seem to realize the greater or hidden significance of the trial. Comparatively few of the residents attended the trial regularly, or at all. The presence of about sixty Industrial Workers of the World, who lived in a house rented by the Defense League for the purpose, and who attended the trial each day, rather puzzled and alarmed the residents, and therefore the trial became popularly known as an "Industrial Workers of the World trial." The jury was made up of eight farmers, two dredge-workers, a carpenter, and a janitor. The trial was conducted in an orderly manner, and was regarded as "a dull murder trial." The evidence was presented in about three weeks; the jury deliberated during one night and convicted Ford and Suhr of murder in the second degree and acquitted Beck and Bagan. Ford and Suhr were subsequently sentenced to the penitentiary for life.

Ford was convicted, not for actually having fired the fatal shot, but on evidence that he had aided and abetted by inciting the crowd to violence and murder. Suhr was convicted on evidence that he had sent telegrams on Sunday morning, August 3, requesting that Industrial Workers of the World literature and "Wobblies" (term for Industrial Workers of the World members) be sent to help, and on the strength of confessions to four of his jailers that he had fired two shots during the riot. To-day the cases are on appeal to the higher courts.

But the significant topic or subject for general or popular discussion and analysis is not the guilt or innocence of Ford and Suhr, or the fairness or unfairness of the trial, but the social and economic factors involved in the riot and murder. The guilt or innocence of the convicted men and the fairness of their trials present technical legal questions which can be discussed or settled intelligently and justly only by those who have the complete records of the trials and all collateral facts before them. Any brief presentation of opinions or conclusions is found to be biased and prejudiced.

However, the very fact that there is so much talk about the fairness of the trial; the fact that to-day a "hop-pickers' committee" is posting thousands of placards all over California demanding the release of Ford and Suhr and an improvement of labor-camp conditions; the fact that the Industrial Workers of the World assumed the financial and social responsibility for the trial; the fact that numerous threatening letters were received by the Judge from radical labor sympathizers; the fact that the great majority of the pickers sympathized with the convicted men; the fact that Federal and State commissions have investigated the underlying economic aspects of the trial—all these facts indicate a strong feeling of class consciousness, an abstract, and not a concrete, struggle between capital and labor.

Ford was not a member of the Industrial Workers of the World at the time of the riot; he had been expelled, more or less in disgrace, a year or two previous. Suhr was a member, but not of high standing, and not even an authorized delegate to organize a strike. There were probably not more than thirty or forty Industrial Workers of the World members in the crowd of twenty-eight hundred. The quick, effective organization, the decisive, concerted action, were of spontaneous growth. The insanitary, deplorable living conditions and the dubious fairness of the wage system were strong psychological factors in bringing about a revolt and a situation which resulted in murder.

Fully one-half of the argument of the counsel for the defense at the trial consisted of a plea for the abstract rights of labor in general, and the defendants were seemingly regarded as "victims caught on the firing-line in the battle of labor." A distinct offer was and is being made to introduce sociological modifications of the law which will have a far-reaching effect on industrial relations of capital and labor. It is asserted that the law must change to meet changing conditions, and that the established theories of legal causation must be enlarged to include economic and social factors which are links in the chain of causes leading to a result.

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It is urged that when insanitary conditions, like those on the Durst ranch, lead to discontent so intense that the crowd can easily, and merely by suggestion, be incited to bloodshed, then those responsible for such conditions are to be held legally responsible for the bloodshed as well as the more direct inciters of the riot—or, at least, that such conditions excuse the inciters from liability, because the inciters are the involuntary transmitting agents of an uncontrollable force set in motion by those who created the "unlivable" conditions. It is claimed that the "right of free speech" is not exceeded under such conditions, because an agitator should be allowed more latitude and may be permitted to go further in making strong statements without being held legally responsible than one should be who maliciously urges a crowd to violence under normal and ordinary conditions. And on this ground it is sought to distinguish the famous Anarchists' case of Spies vs. The People in Illinois.

Furthermore, the question of the right of labor to organize on private property is involved, and it is urged that, in line with the general limitation of the former "sacred rights of property," labor is to be given such right. Defendants' counsel argued that a worker has a right, even as against the landowner, to stay on the property "where his job is and organize, because the job is all he has, it is *his* property, and it cannot be arbitrarily taken away from him."

Unfortunately, the careless and insanitary camp on the Durst ranch is only a type of most labor camps in the State, so the concrete problem in California is, What can be done to remedy the evils existing in the industrial relations between migratory, unskilled, seasonal workers and their employers? In short, it is the problem of migratory labor. The migratory laborers are by nature roving, careless, disorganized, and therefore hard to get at. But the State authorities have realized the social significance of this one incident and have stated that the remedy lies not in punishment of crimes against society, but in prevention. So to-day the California Commission of Immigration and Housing is working energetically and effectively to achieve the first important step in the programme of prevention—*to clean up labor camps!*

PROFIT-SHARING IN OPERATION

PROFIT-SHARING AND OTHER ALLIED FACTORS AS CONSTRUCTIVE FORCES IN THE INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT OF A SPECIALTY IRON AND STEEL BUSINESS

BY GEORGE M. VERITY

PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN ROLLING MILL COMPANY

*This plain statement of what actually has been done in establishing just dealing, mutual profit, and "company spirit" between employer and employee may well be read as a striking contrast with the hostile spirit and methods described in the preceding article.—*THE EDITORS.

ENGAGED in the manufacture of special grades of sheet metal difficult to produce, the American Rolling Mill Company, of Middletown, Ohio, has proceeded on the assumption that quality of product and quality service to customers could only be successfully obtained and retained through quality in the human element composing its working organization.

To that end it has been the policy of the Company to secure or to develop, and to hold, the best man available for each and every position to be filled, from common laborer to general superintendent, and from the office boy to the general manager.

To interest and hold a good man once secured or developed is the responsibility of the managers of industry, and each must work it out in his own way. No matter what the plan, there are principles involved that must be considered and basic traits of human nature to be reckoned with if success is to be attained.

In dealing with and planning for our men we have given due consideration to the following factors:

1. To pay as good wages or salaries as

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are paid by industry generally for each particular class of service, and to encourage and assist each individual in doing everything that he can to increase his efficiency and to broaden his abilities.

2. We strive to give regular employees as steady employment as possible.

3. We do everything within our power to create the best possible working conditions—light, heat, ventilation, good sanitary and living conditions generally around the works being considered.

4. Safety First has the constant attention of a committee composed of representatives from the ranks of the superintendents and of the men, and individual responsibility in safety is enlarged upon.

5. We provide a fully equipped, modern hospital and the best possible medical and surgical attention and care in case of sickness or accident while at work, believing it not only a humanitarian and a moral obligation to do so, but that it is in the mutual interest of the men and the Company to minimize every case of accident or sickness. Our men cannot afford to be out of work, and the Company cannot afford to lose their experienced service.

6. We do everything that we can to assist in creating good living and educational conditions in the community, in the interest of the families of our men. We encourage good health and offer advice and instruction to the men and their families, as far as possible, through the medium of a regularly employed physician and surgeon.

7. We demand sobriety and good citizenship and encourage thrift.

8. We conceived and have developed at very great effort and expense a business that offers abundant opportunity for promotion and for development of the characteristics and abilities demanded by modern complex business.

9. We give every deserving man every possible chance for promotion, advancing men from the ranks instead of bringing in experienced men from the great outside.

10. We encourage morally and financially a mutual aid association and club that provides sick and death benefits; mental, social, and physical recreation and entertainment; and which practically provides a benefit for every hazard while at work, at home, or on the street not provided for under the Workmen's Compensation Act of Ohio.

11. We deal with the members of our working organization as men who are factors in our business, and accord each and every one such a mixture of consideration for his individual interests and firmness for the Company's rights as is unquestionably in our mutual interest.

We strive to create and to develop to the highest degree that sort of invincible spirit, company spirit, organization spirit, mutual-interest spirit, that knows neither fear nor failure, that will enable our organization to fight each day's battle as an effective, co-operative, co-ordinate unit.

12. We offer an additional incentive for the very best effort that can be made and for more than ordinary loyalty, faithfulness, application, and efficiency through profit-sharing.

It has been our policy to make practical application of the principles involved in the first eleven factors named above before giving serious consideration to the twelfth.

Some of these eleven factors we consider moral obligations, others are simply good business policy; but we believe that they are all fundamental, and that they are to primary organization what the foundation is to the superstructure, and as such should be put into practice first before attempting to build a superstructure in organization (extra effective organization) through the aid of profit-sharing.

Furthermore, we believe that results secured from the working out of these first eleven factors comprise the successive steps in the development of the human unit; that they constitute a preparation for such further progression, both in ability to perform and in wisdom to safeguard the resultant reward, as makes profit-sharing both practical and inevitable.

PROFIT-SHARING

Profit-sharing has been practiced by our Company for the past eight years. It was started in a small way with a few of the men who were assuming the larger responsibilities in the strenuous activities of operation and production. The plan originally adopted was gradually broadened and the number of individuals applicable under its provisions increased, until every salaried man in the employ of the Company is now included.

Our plan is simple and easily applied. To all heads of departments and their assistants, and to such other men as must assume responsibility in management, show initiative in their work, and whose planning, application,

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and management count directly for profit or for loss, for economy or for waste of time and material, we offer a fixed percentage of the net profits of the business. By net profits we mean the net amount available for common stock dividends.

The amount or percentage of net profit that is allotted to any certain man depends upon the importance of his position and the character of the responsibility he is assuming; but the amount that can be secured individually and collectively depends upon results obtained through the joint effort of the entire organization. Each individual is not only dependent on his own effective work, but on that of all his associates. Team work is absolutely essential.

To clerks and accountants, the value of whose work depends largely upon correctness, on prompt and faithful service and loyalty to the Company and its policies, we allow a percentage on their yearly salaries running from two and one-half per cent to an employee who has been in the service of the Company eighteen months and less than two and one-half years, to fifteen per cent to the employee who has been in the Company's service ten years or more.

This latter application cannot be considered strictly profit-sharing. It is rather a "bonus," as it is not dependent on profits.

WHY WE BELIEVE IN PROFIT-SHARING

We have figured that in every line of human endeavor there is a standard amount of work, a reasonable number of hours of employment, and a certain standard of effort and performance that must be accepted as a fair return for the current compensation paid for such service. That more than such standard amount of effort cannot be expected of any class of labor (by labor we mean every man who serves, from the office boy and humblest laborer to the general manager) without extra incentive of some kind. We argue that the basic traits in human nature are much the same in all men; that to induce men to do the most efficient and effective work they can do you must give them fair treatment, good, safe, healthful working conditions, opportunity for promotion, and every possible extra incentive.

Sound profit-sharing offers extra incentive for the best work a man has it in him to do. Added to fair and helpful treatment in all things, it brings out the best traits in human character, which often lie the deepest.

If a man has ability and does his best, he can not only command the highest wages or salary paid one for his class of service, but he is helping his company to secure such results as will enable them to have profits to divide with him and their stockholders, and he is at the same time proving that it pays to divide with him.

We believe that it is impossible to secure maximum results in any business without the stimulus of some extra incentive to the "men behind the guns." The human unit will strive and persevere in proportion to the reward offered for successful accomplishment; and, furthermore, the possibility of additional reward makes a more interesting "game."

EVERY WORKER A PARTNER

We support it as an investment and as a business proposition, for if it did not pay a proper return on the investment it would be contrary to the law of economics and would soon slip into the discard by the force of its own weight.

To be truly economic profit-sharing must be a fixed reward known in advance and based on results secured covering some stated period, on faithfulness, loyalty, ability, efficiency, and on term of service.

We aim to have every member of our organization feel that he is a partner, to work as only a partner can or will work, and to stand ready to share in the responsibilities as well as the rewards of partnership.

SKILLED LABOR

The iron and steel business differs very radically from every other form of industrial endeavor, both in the character of service required of the many different classes of labor employed and in the compensation paid.

Skilled labor earns from five to twenty-five dollars per day, the higher wages being possible through great skill and efficiency, and the highest wages are earned in the departments that work an eight-hour day.

While we have been unable to work out any plan of regular profit-sharing with what is known as "tonnage labor," it is, for reasons explained above, the best paid of any trade in all the country, and the accepted method of fixing its compensation does in reality give such fair return for actual results obtained as is aimed at in profit-sharing.

All employees have from time to time been given opportunity to secure stock in the Com-

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pany on favorable terms, and a great many have done so.

COMMON LABOR

To foreign, or common, labor we offer a better understood and more direct reward of an additional one cent per hour over existing base rates to all who have been in the service of the Company for one year or more. To all common laborers in the employ of the Company two years or more an extra rate of two cents per hour over base rates is paid.

We pay this extra rate on the theory that those who stay with us one or more years become more effective by having a better understanding of our work and requirements and by greater ability and dependability. We have proved that this theory is sound.

We encourage the better class of foreigners to stay with us by providing them with good, clean homes with unusually attractive surroundings. We supervise the care of their homes and of their living conditions. We encourage cleanliness and good living conditions by offering monthly prizes for the best-kept house and yard. We find the Hungarians and Slavs very susceptible to such treatment.

A club-house with ample grounds is provided for foreign employees, where the men and their families find recreation and entertainment, where they can hold house parties and lawn fêtes, and where they are satisfied with soft drinks instead of beer and "booze."

As a result their holidays are spent at the club with their families, and they all turn up sober and ready for work the next morning.

Prior to the providing of this club-house "booze" was the main attraction in every colony, fighting and quarrels were the order of the day, and the "morning after" found our active working forces much reduced by sore heads, cripples, and by those still in the city jail.

BUTTER AND GRAVY

BY KINGSLEY MOSES

MYRON TUBBS carefully wiped his knife upon the rim of his plate, laid it down on the bare wooden table, and tilted back in his hard kitchen chair. Slowly his big pale-blue eyes circled the room. Then, as if convinced for the millionth time of his solitude, he stared fixedly out through the grimy window pane at the grim winter dawn.

No gleam of sunlight filtered through the heavy mass of gray cloud that blanketed the sky; for already the first flakes of snow were drifting down, dropping slowly, lazily, upon the frozen earth. The barren, brown fields stretched away, sloping gradually downward to the valley, where lay the lonely little village, betrayed only by the white tip of a church steeple. Across the valley lay the mountains, rising one behind the other in rolling regularity. In the immediate foreground stood the huge round watering-trough, with its gleaming surface of ice; beyond lay the barnyard with a melancholy herd of cows huddled together in one corner; and farther off, in the frozen pasture, a few scattered sheep nibbled at the scanty stalks of grass In the whole desolate scene there was not one trace of color; dirty gray sheep against the bare, brown earth; gaunt brown trees against the dull gray sky.

A lank and furtive cat stole out from under the stove and sniffed at the floor beneath the table, suspiciously licked a morsel of potato, then sneaked back to its warm corner. A fat and ancient collie dog, stretched out in front of the door, wheezed in his sleep, twitching his rheumatic legs. One solitary fly crawled drowsily across the ceiling.

Slowly and wearily Myron Tubbs rose to his feet and dragged his two hundred and fifty pounds across the kitchen. He took down the dipper from its hook above the stove, ladled out the hot water, poured it into a basin in the sink, and shoved his dirty breakfast dishes into the water to soak. For Farmer Tubbs's method of dish-washing was simple in the extreme. If you put the dirty dishes in hot water after one meal, they would be quite easy to wipe clean when the time came for the next repast.

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"It's a lonely life," muttered Mr. Tubbs, dragging on his cowhide boots. "A lonely life."

His eye encountered the gayly lithographed calendar on the wall. "The 20th of February," he continued, in a dreary monotone; "nine year to-day she's been gone. Nine year's a long time."

"Funny," he grumbled, addressing the prostrate dog, "how slow time do pass"—he pronounced it "pay-ass." "Funny how mean a feller feels livin' alone. I feel a sight more like settin' right here all day thun I do like butcherin'. But I guess them durn hawgs o' Hooper's has gotta be stuck."

Painfully he wedged his rotund person into a fur coat, selected his long, thin-bladed butcher knife from the shelf above the sink, put his iron bristle-scraper into his pocket, and lumbered out of the door.

Two hours later the outer door creaked open and a face poked around the corner and surveyed the interior of the kitchen. Sharp-featured and leathery as the face was, there was in it a look of motherly compassion that quite redeemed it. The door swung wide and the little woman bustled into the room. Reaching the middle of the floor, she suddenly halted, looked about her, and, with an exclamation of dismay, dropped her wicker suit-case on the floor and hastily unpinned her antique black bonnet.

In twenty minutes the dishes were washed and put away in the cupboard, the table was cleared and covered with a clean red tablecloth, the room was swept and dusted, and the doors were opened to let in the air. The sharp-visaged little woman never halted for an instant, scurrying hither and thither in almost frightened haste. Sausages frizzled in the frying-pan, the tea-kettle hummed on the top of the stove, and a skillet full of boiling potatoes bubbled and steamed cheerily.

Over the potatoes the little woman watched with the most assiduous care, poking now one, now another, with the point of her fork. Satisfied at last that they were reduced to their proper state of mealiness, she lifted them out with care, husked off their "jackets," and mashed them vigorously in a large earthen bowl. Then with even greater care she began a most elaborate ceremonial: measuring out milk, butter, and flour, mixing them, and occasionally pouring in a spoonful of sausage fat. Finally, with a sigh of content, she put the dishes up above the stove, where they would keep warm, and seated herself in a wooden rocker, in the warm corner behind the kitchen stove.

Horses' hoofs on the hard ground outside announced the return of Farmer Tubbs, and in a few minutes the door slammed open and that squatty individual appeared. With nose red and eyes watering from the cold, he stood there in the doorway, panting plethorically. Slowly his eyes widened as he noticed the array of steaming dishes above the stove.

Then the little woman came forward, hesitatingly.

"Hello, Myron," she said, stretching out her hand.

Farmer Tubbs stared at her blankly, then his fat jaw dropped open, and he managed to stammer, "Hello, Hannah." Then, seeing her outstretched hand, he gripped it timidly, uncertainly, as if it might suddenly be snatched away from him.

"I come back to stay, Myron."

"Yes, Hannah."

Slowly she released his hand and retired to her rocker. Slowly, as if partially paralyzed, he pulled off his fur coat and cap and perched himself uncomfortably on a hard kitchen chair at the opposite side of the room.

"Where you been, Hannah?" he inquired, at last.

"Over to Bethel, with me sister Susan." Then, softly, "I made ye some nice gravy, Myron." Then, rapidly, as if fearing to be interrupted, she continued: "When I left you, Myron, I was pretty hot, as per'aps you recall. But after aw'ile I begun to do some thinkin', an' I thought quite a deal for some years. So las' week I said to my sister Susan, I says, 'You know why I ain't livin' with Myron. It ain't that he warn't good to me; he was good enough, all right, all 'cep' in one thing.' An' if I do say so, Myron, you was close, and that's what I tol' Susan. You remember how it was we come to have our last fight. Well, I tol' Susan just how it was—how 't you said that nobody ain't got no call to be wastin' butter on good potatoes when they can eat gravy just as well; an' 's how I said that, if I couldn't have butter when I wanted it, that you could make your gravy, if you wanted gravy. An' then you began to tell me about how a wife should behave, an' I up an' left."

"Yep, Hannah; I remember like it was yesterday."

"Well, as you can see," continued Hannah, her voice softening, "here I am back,

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an' the gravy's settin' right over there on the stove."

Myron Tubbs reached for his overcoat.

"I gotto drive downtown," he explained; "I'll be back in twenty minutes."

"Ye ain't mad, Myron?"

"No, Hannah."

And he closed the door behind him very gently.

Twenty minutes later Hannah sat at the table. The sausages were arranged on a white platter at the opposite end of the board, the mashed potato beside them in a white pyramid. Right by the potato stood the bowl of thick, brown gravy.

Myron came clumping into the room, a square package in his hand. Carefully he unwrapped the brown covering, pulled off the oiled paper, and set a large fresh print of butter before his wife.

With sparkling eyes she looked up at him.

"That's awful nice of you, Myron," was all she said.

"'S all right, Hannah," he returned, "even if butter is forty cents a pound."

Deliberately he seated himself in his place, passed the sausage, and helped himself liberally to the potato. Then he reached for the gravy, dipped his spoon into it, and held the spoonful over his plate.

Then as slowly he put the spoon back into the dish.

"Ye know, Hannah," he drawled finally, "ye know I ain't et gravy since you left. An' I mistrust that it wouldn't set good on me stomach now."

His wife looked at him searchingly. Then her eyes sought the precious golden square of butter.

"Well, Myron," she replied, "to tell you the truth, I ain't eat butter since then neither."

COMMERCE AND FINANCE

A WEEKLY ARTICLE BY THEODORE H. PRICE

SPECULATION: THE WISDOM OF RESTRICTING IT BY LAW OR OTHERWISE

MEN have three primal instincts: self-preservation, reproduction, and speculation.

The instinct of self-preservation secures the existence of the individual, and that of reproduction the perpetuation of the race; but the instinct of speculation is responsible for its progress. The world's philosophers have been speculative thinkers. Its inventors have been speculative physicists. Its explorers have been speculative travelers, and the most commanding figures of its commercial and financial history have been, and are, proud to call themselves "merchant adventurers." It has been the men who have been willing to take the chance of being wrong or failing who have promoted higher thinking, better living, and human opportunity.

Essential as are the instincts of self-preservation and reproduction, it has always been recognized that they are liable to abuse, and they have therefore been subject to regulation. Starvation does not justify stealing, though it palliates it. A man may not kill another even in self-defense if any other way of escape is open; and adultery and seduction are crimes.

It has not always been so. The laws which give to life and chastity and property protection against the abuse of our primordial instincts have been of slow development, and in their present form delimit the rights of the individual and recognize those of the community to an extent never before known. Within the present generation the same spirit of collectivism is finding expression in an attempt to regulate the instinct of speculation. Formerly it had been assumed that "a man might do as he chose with his own," and gambling and lotteries were legalized. Then it came to be realized that no one "can live unto himself;" and that, while one man might gamble without self-injury, the example was demoralizing to others, and so lotteries were suppressed and gaming prohibited.

The proposal to regulate or restrain speculative operations has reference in the minds

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of its authors only to the transactions which are conducted upon the exchanges.

In 1909 Governor Hughes, of New York, appointed a committee to study and report "what changes, if any, are advisable in the laws of the State bearing upon speculation in securities and commodities." This report, which is remarkable for its lucidity, says:

In law, speculation becomes gambling when the trading which it involves does not lead, and is not intended to lead, to the actual passing from hand to hand of the property that is dealt in. Thus, in the recent case of Hurd vs. Taylor (181 N. Y., 231), the Court of Appeals of New York said:

"The law of this State as to the purchase and sale of stocks is well settled. The purchase of stocks through a broker, though the party ordering such purchase does not intend to hold the stocks as an investment, but expects the broker to carry them for him with the design on the part of the purchaser to sell again the stocks when their market value has enhanced, is, however speculative, entirely legal. Equally so is a 'short sale' where the seller has not the stock he assumes to sell, but borrows it and expects to replace it when the market value has declined. But to make such transactions legal they must contemplate an actual purchase or an actual sale of stocks by the broker, or through him. If the intention is that the so-called broker shall pay his customer the difference between the market price at which the stocks were ordered purchased and that at which they were ordered sold in case fluctuation is in favor of the customer, or that, in case it is against the customer, the customer shall pay the broker that difference, no purchase or sales being made, the transaction is a wager and therefore illegal. Such business is merely gambling, in which the so-called commission for purchases and sales that are never made is simply the percentage which in other gambling games is reserved in favor of the keeper of the establishment."

This is also the law respecting commodity transactions.

The rules of all the exchanges forbid gambling, as defined by this opinion; but they make so easy a technical delivery of the property contracted for that the practical effect of much speculation, in point of form legitimate, is not greatly different from that of gambling. Contracts to buy may be privately offset by contracts to sell. The offsetting may be done, in a systematic way, by clearing-houses or by "ring settlements." Where deliveries are actually made, property may be temporarily borrowed for the purpose. In these ways, speculation which has the legal traits of legitimate dealing may go on almost as freely as mere wagering, and may have most of the pecuniary and immoral effects of gambling on a large scale.

A real distinction exists between speculation which is carried on by persons of means and experience, and based on an intelligent forecast, and that which is carried on by persons without these qualifications. The former is closely connected with regular business. While not unaccompanied by waste and loss, this speculation accomplishes an amount of good which offsets much of its cost. The latter does but a small amount of good and an almost incalculable amount of evil. In its nature it is in the same class with gambling upon the race-track or at the roulette table, but is practiced on a vastly larger scale. Its ramifications extend to all parts of the country. It involves a practical certainty of loss to those who engage in it. A continuous stream of wealth, taken from the actual capital of innumerable persons of relatively small means, swells the income of brokers and operators dependent on this class of business; and in so far as it is consumed like most income, it represents a waste of capital. The total amount of this waste is rudely indicated by the obvious cost of the vast mechanism of brokerage and by manipulators' gains, of both of which it is a large constituent element. But for a continuous influx of new customers, replacing those whose losses force them out of the "street," this costly mechanism of speculation could not be maintained on anything like its present scale.

The problem, wherever speculation is strongly rooted, is to eliminate that which is wasteful and morally destructive, while retaining and allowing free play to that which is beneficial. The difficulty in the solution of the problem lies in the practical impossibility of distinguishing what is virtually gambling from legitimate speculation. The most fruitful policy will be found in measures which will lessen speculation by persons not qualified to engage in it.

It would be hard to find a better statement than the foregoing of the distinction between legitimate and illegitimate speculation.

Legitimate speculation is that which is carried on by persons of means and experience, and is based on intelligent forecast. Illegitimate speculation is that which is carried on by persons who cannot afford to take the risks involved, or are without the experience or mentality necessary to intelligent forecast.

The dry-goods dealer who lays in a stock of goods against a prospective but uncertain demand; the publisher who prints a book or magazine upon the unproved theory that it will sell; the railway builder who puts his money into construction that will develop new territory; the manufacturer who invests his capital in factories and machinery designed to produce something that may not be sold for months; the banker who lends money

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and the merchant who borrows it, are all engaged in speculation, for there is an element of uncertainty in each transaction.

There is, in fact, no certainty in life except death, and even death has been made the basis of a business that is essentially speculative, viz., life insurance.

The very etymology of the word "speculation," from the Latin *speculari*, to look, to see or carefully observe, makes it clear that every act which involves any prevision of the future is speculative, and justifiable in the degree in which the accuracy of the prevision approximates that of omniscience.

In this view speculation becomes a development of the attributes in which we most nearly resemble the divinity, namely, foresight and reason, and is reprehensible only when blindly or thoughtlessly undertaken. This statement also defines the distinction between gambling and speculation. Gambling is an unnecessary hazard of chance undertaken without intelligence for a purpose not in itself commendable. Speculation is a hazard involving chance undertaken with intelligence to accomplish something that is commendable.

Ethically, gambling is wrong only because it demoralizes the character and the community. It is not forbidden in the Decalogue, nor is it mentioned in a Bible in which the "drawing of lots" is frequently described as a recognized method of settling important questions.

Speculation is morally right only when it benefits the individual or the community, and the earliest recorded instance of a speculative operation somewhat doubtful in its ethical quality is the corner in corn which Joseph planned and carried out on behalf of Pharaoh to the discomfiture of his brethren.

In considering the various measures that have been suggested for the regulation or suppression of speculation it is important that we should keep clearly in mind that the regulation of an entirely natural, beneficial, and irrepressible instinct is desired, rather than the application of a principle of morals.

The question is how can the disposition of mankind to anticipate the future be restrained without obliterating initiative and checking progress?

It may as well be recognized at once that it is a counsel of perfection to say that this can be done without injury to some one or the violation of rights hitherto regarded as inviolable.

The man who has $500 to risk upon a confident and intelligent belief that New York Central Railroad stock will shortly be worth more cannot be denied the right of buying 100 shares costing $9,000 on that margin if he can find a broker willing to advance him the remaining $8,500 necessary to pay for it; and the merchant who would borrow from his bank the entire purchase price of a stock of goods he expects to sell at a profit cannot be prevented from doing so if the bank will make the loan.

If we undertake to condition the right to speculate upon the possession of capital, experience, or intelligence, we at once abridge liberty of action in a way that is both intolerable and unconstitutional.

It is, however, possible to insist that those who provide the facilities and machinery through which speculation finds expression shall no longer be able to protect themselves against the consequences of acts essentially dishonest by the time-honored but otherwise dishonorable defense of *caveat emptor*. This maxim, which means "let the buyer beware," assumes that the seller has a right to deceive in order to dispose of his goods, and the mercantile traditions derived from it are responsible for many of the discreditable practices which survive to-day.

The Pure Food Law, which compels the vender accurately to describe the contents of any package which cannot be examined, and the law which has established a fixed weight for a loaf of bread, would seem to be analogues of all that is necessary to diminish greatly the temptation and risk of much speculation that is harmful.

Of course no law can make men observant and thoughtful. Many men are blind:

"Few think justly of the thinking few,
And many never think who think they do."

But if it were made impossible to offer securities for sale without accurately describing the properties against which they are issued, and the capitalization and earnings of these properties, many lies would be nailed, many losses would be avoided, and many foolish people who now act in ignorance would be protected against themselves.

The laws against fictitious transactions by which an illusion of market value is given to securities are now being fairly well enforced.

If it ever becomes possible to enforce them absolutely and to make the seller of securities publish an accurate analysis of the values, equities, and earnings of which these securities are representative, great progress

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will have been made toward the solution of an extremely difficult problem.

Remedial or regulatory legislation which attempts to do more than this is contrary to the spirit of Anglo-Saxon liberty and law and almost certain to be futile. Justice Holmes, of the United States Supreme Court, has said that "speculation is the legitimate adjustment of society to the probable," and it is practically and legally impossible to deny any one the right of attempting to make this adjustment if he does not thereby infringe the rights of others.

There is, however, one development of speculation that many believe to be an unwarrantable and unmoral invasion of both public and private rights. It is the practice known as "short selling," by a resort to which a person who does not own the property sold is able to contract for its future delivery at ruling prices, upon the theory that later on he will be able to purchase it at a lower price from some present owner, and so profit by the expected decline in value.

While such operations as these are technically legal, they frequently depreciate values unnecessarily, accentuate alarm, and thereby work great injury to the community and the individual. Just how one may sell that which he does not own has been frequently explained, but it remains, nevertheless, a paradox to many. For the sake of clarity, the process had better be again described.

Let us say that John Smith, who is not an owner of any stock in the New York Central Railroad, has reason to believe it will decline in value. It is at present selling for 90 per cent of its par value, at which price 100 shares would bring $9,000. John Smith concludes that if he can to-day sell 100 shares of New York Central Railroad stock for $9,000, he may later on be able to buy it for $8,500, and so make $500.

He authorizes his broker to sell 100 shares of the stock to-day. In the regular course of business, the 100 shares sold must be delivered to-morrow. In order to obtain the stock which he has sold and must deliver to-morrow, Mr. Smith goes to Mr. Jones, who owns 100 shares of New York Central Railroad stock, and borrows it from him, agreeing to return it on demand, and meantime gives Jones as security for the loan the present value of the stock in cash, namely, $9,000. Mr. Jones has thus the use of $9,000, upon which he may get interest, and the right to demand the return of the stock at any time that he sees fit. Smith is able to deliver the 100 shares borrowed upon the sale made, and, if his anticipation with regard to the decline in price is realized, he may thereafter buy it from some one else for $8,500 and return the stock so borrowed to Jones, thus closing the transaction.

In the case of commodities, short selling is accomplished by contracting at present prices for the sale and future delivery of merchandise, upon the theory that its value will have declined before the maturity of the contract, and the seller be enabled thereby to buy from some one else the property to be delivered, at a price which shows a profit.

It will readily be seen that in both stocks and commodities the opportunity of short selling may factitiously increase the quantity for sale at any given time, and thereby unnecessarily depreciate values, depressing them far below the figure justified by the relation between the actual supply and demand.

Those who engage in short selling, which is otherwise described as "operating for a decline," are called "bears," and, as their profit depends upon their success in inducing some one else to part with his property at a price below that at which they have contracted to deliver it, the temptation to exaggerate influences which destroy confidence in values is very great.

In times of apprehension or distress, when buyers are scarce, the opportunity of short selling makes it comparatively easy to depreciate the property of others, to excite alarm, to destroy the bases of much credit, and to do great injury to the community and the individual.

This is an abuse which should be prevented, if possible; but if, as has been suggested, it should be made a criminal offense to contract for the sale of something of which the seller is not the owner, many necessary commercial transactions would be estopped. The farmer could not contract for the sale of a half-grown crop; the manufacturer would be denied the right of selling the output of his factory in advance; and even the publisher might find himself debarred from accepting subscriptions for future but unprinted copies of his magazine.

It will be seen that it is immensely difficult to devise a law which will check the abuse of short selling without so restricting legitimate freedom of contract that great injury might result.

A measure which has recently been intro-

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duced in Congress would make it necessary for the seller of cotton for future delivery to declare that he either owns or has purchased for future delivery the cotton contracted for and intends to deliver it, or that it is in course of growth on land controlled by him; but any law which involves a question of good faith, intention, or expectation can easily be evaded, and puts the honest man at a great disadvantage.

There is no doubt that unrestricted short selling works great injury at times, that it is against public policy and ought to be restrained, but the question is how to check it without creating a situation worse than the one for which a cure is sought.

The adjustments of complex commerce make it necessary and legitimate that men should buy in advance of their requirements and sell in anticipation of subsequent acquisition or production. He who can devise a law that will permit such transactions when they are legitimate and prevent them when they are illegitimate and designed unduly and selfishly to advance or depress prices to the unnecessary injury of others will perform a great public service.

It is seemingly impossible to frame a law that will do this with exact justice.

The evil of the present system is most flagrant on the great stock and commodity exchanges of the country, and a compromise measure that would compel them to condition the right to sell upon a declaration of ownership or of the reasons for an expectation of ownership would probably be more salutary and less harmful than anything that has been suggested.

Many specious and plausible arguments in defense of unrestricted short selling have been urged. It is contended that it diminishes the shock of declining markets; that it provides an opportunity of insurance against commercial risks; and that it broadens the market and distributes the weight of the supply among a larger number of buyers than would otherwise be interested.

It is nevertheless true that it enables one man for a selfish purpose to depreciate factitiously the marketable value of other people's property, and the essential injustice of such a practice should in some way be made impossible.

THE NEW BOOKS

THE REAL MEXICO[1]

Mr. Fyfe has recently served in Mexico as correspondent of the London "Times." This book is no doubt mainly made up from his newspaper letters, but, while its contents are accordingly somewhat desultory and disconnected in arrangement, this is rather an advantage than otherwise, because each chapter treats separately and completely some single well-selected topic. A few chapter heads, with running comment and quotation, will show the force of this statement.

"A Conversation at Chapala" is an amusing yet most instructive dialogue between the author and a group of English and American people, no two of whom held the same view. All have some of the truth about the "Real Mexico," none of them all of it. Here is one passage of summary if incongruous views:

> I heard that the Indians were brave, industrious, and faithful; that they were cowardly, "bone-idle," and knew no gratitude; that they were kindly and childlike; that they were devilish in their lust and cruelty. I heard from some that the Spaniards were "the worst grafters of the lot;" from others, that their honor could always be trusted. I was told that Porfirio Diaz was a heaven-born statesman, a short-sighted military despot, a brutal oppressor. One assured me that if Madero "had been given a chance" he would have brought Mexico into line with "other great countries." The rest united in denouncing him as a crazy, incompetent dreamer. "He was known as *loco Franco* (mad Frank) when he was young. He never grew out of it." I was told that General Huerta could have crushed the revolutionists "long ago" if the United States had recognized him, and immediately afterwards by the same people that his army was a joke and his generals a public scandal. "They will not end the war in a hundred years."

In the chapter called "The Nemesis of Paternalism" Mr. Fyfe points out with startling plainness the wretched condition of public sentiment that follows a long period

[1] The Real Mexico. By H. Hamilton Fyfe. McBride, Nast & Co., New York. $1.25.

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of even benevolent despotism. Thus he says:

It is a hard thing to say, but the more one pries into the records of public men in Mexico the stronger becomes the doubt whether any Government can keep the country quiet unless it be supported, advised, and supervised by some elder brother or brothers, until its evil traditions and practices have been purged away. In the spending departments, dishonesty is not the exception, but the rule. The reason why revolutions are started is simply that the leaders' palms itch for the public purse. The way to stop revolution, therefore, is to stop thieving. To use a shop metaphor, only a cash register can put an end to pilfering from the till.

Theft is an unpleasant word, and it is only fair to say that no ignominy attaches to corruption in Mexico, because no one in office is expected to be anything but corrupt. Porfirio Diaz kept order by allowing a few to enrich themselves, and shooting any one who objected or tried to enter the privileged "ring." But the day for that is past, and, in any case, there is no Porfirio Diaz now.

But that indifference to good government and personal rights is not confined to Mexicans is seen in a story told by the author under the title "How Property Suffers:"

I traveled one day with an official of the United States Immigration Department. In the course of duty he had to go over from El Paso to Juarez to make inquiries about a colored man who had committed some offense in the United States. This man had in the meantime joined the Mexican army and been made a lieutenant. He had the immigration agent arrested by four soldiers without any warrant on a charge of "being about to attempt to kidnap him." The soldiers marched the agent off towards the hills; being convinced that they would shoot him if they got him there, he ran away. They fired and shot him through the stomach. He managed to get to the Civil Police Post, but even there he lay for twenty-four hours without proper treatment, and his release was secured only by the resolute action of another immigration officer. I asked him what his Government had done. "Done? Done nothing!" he said, savagely. "Holding some sort of an inquiry! I tell you the people of my country, so long as they get enough to eat and can go to the picture shows at night, don't care what happens." I was reminded of what a fine old American soldier had said to me a day or two before, "There isn't as much red blood in this people as there used to be."

In the sketch of General Carranza, "The Chief of the Revolution," Mr. Fyfe retells and reaffirms a conversation he had with the head of the Constitutionalists. It shows that even the man thought to be the wisest and most moderate among Mexican political leaders now in the field has strange ideas of the power of life and death:

"Have you any definite plans for land reform and other reforms?" I inquired.

He thought a moment. Then he replied: "The first necessity is the fair and free election of a President. The election which is proposed now will be a farce. In the disturbed state of our country it is impossible to hold a proper election. Large numbers of voters will not know anything about it. We Constitutionalists refuse to recognize any President who may be returned at the fraudulent election. We shall execute anybody who does recognize him."

"I beg your pardon," I said. "Would you kindly repeat your last statement?"

I thought I must have misunderstood it.

"We shall," the General said calmly and as if he were making a perfectly natural remark, "execute any one who recognizes a President unconstitutionally elected, and directly or indirectly guilty of participation in the murder of Madero."

The land problem has been and will be the greatest of Mexican political problems. Mr. Fyfe makes an illuminating comparison:

Mexico in one respect resembles France before the Revolution. Almost all the land is held by rich men who manage to escape taxes. Porfirio Diaz was called a strong man, yet he was afraid to reform this abuse. He failed lamentably also in permitting the landowners to practice criminal extortion and fraud. The "peons" (peasants) have in many parts been deprived of their holdings, either by being cheated out of them or by being loaded with chains of debt. Here is an example of the tricks played upon the unlettered Indian. An edict was issued that land in certain parts must be registered by a certain date. Many Indians were kept in ignorance of that order. Unregistered land was put up for sale, and in some cases bought at ridiculously low prices. Protesting, but unable to resist the injustice, their wretched owners were dispossessed. Nor was that all. After losing their property, they often became slaves.

Thousands of peasants are in bondage to their employers—the great "Hacendados." They are obliged to buy at the "Hacienda" store. Credit is easy. In time, the employers have an account against them which they can never hope to pay. Or else they borrow in order to be married. Church fees are heavy, but the Mexican peasant feels "more married" if the knot is tied by a priest, and the women are good Catholics. Or it may be that funds are wanted for a funeral and "wake." Somehow

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or other the thoughtless peon gives his employer a hold over him. His mortgaged land is taken, and so long as he owes money he cannot go away. Worse still, the debt descends to his children.

The condition of these peons is practically that of slaves.

These few citations might be multiplied without beginning to exhaust the graphic passages dealing with such vital subjects as "The Oil Rivalry Myth," "Education," "The Character of the Mexican," and "The Mexican at Home." In some respects Mr. Fyfe's views take color from his own British nationality, but his pictures of things and men as they are now in Mexico are clear. Personal experiences, anecdotes, bits of conversations —all help to make the book lively and entertaining. No one can read it without getting a better idea of facts and conditions.

Arthur Rackham's Book of Pictures. The Century Company, New York. $4.

"In dealing with childish things," says Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch, "as in dealing with love or things divine, there are two stages of initiation." The first is all awe and seriousness, but it has "a knack of being taken for the higher; whereas it is, in truth, rawer and more elementary than the insight which, having taught you to adore, permits you also to smile, as a good husband may (because the understanding is perfect) 'chaff' his wife and at the same time love her more deeply than he ever did in the merely reverential days of courtship." Again he says: "The child himself, set between the mysterious and the absurd, is all the while severely practical. He wants to know how creation was managed; he wants (in the words of that half-forgotten American book 'Helen's Babies') to see the wheels go round. . . . Above all," concludes Sir Arthur, "the child declines the idea of a single Demiurge turning the marvels of the world from one great, lonely laboratory.... No, the Demiurge cannot possibly find time for it all. He must employ hosts of small, unseen workmen. . . . Therefore, even if there were no such beings as fairies, the children would have to invent them—pixies, nixies, gnomes, goblins, elves, kobolds, and the rest—to account for the marvels that are happening all the while, but specially while we sleep. How else can we explain toadstools, for instance?"

These sentiments are taken from Sir Arthur's Introduction to Mr. Rackham's book—a book which certainly ministers to this particular need of childhood. Mr. Rackham's delightful pictures are reproductions in color from water-colors, oils, and pastels of children, of scenes from fairy tales and classical mythology, of fantastic scenes and child-folk. Mr. Rackham's draughtsmanship is exquisite and his color schemes charming and restful.

Shallow Soil. By Knut Hamsun. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.35.

The name of the author of this story is new to American readers, although a good deal of Scandinavian literature, both in drama and fiction, has become familiar to them of late years.

Knut Hamsun was born in one of the valleys which are dear to the Norwegian novelists. His family was in such poverty that he was sent to an uncle of stern, unlovely disposition, living on an island off the coast. There he grew up, a taciturn, silent boy, accustomed to hardship and danger; in very intimate relations, both of imagination and of work, with the world about him. At the age of seventeen he was apprenticed to a cobbler, and through his labor on the bench saved enough money to print and publish a fantastic poem and a novel which attracted very little attention. The next twelve years were spent in various occupations and in as many places. He was in Christiania for a time, and was enrolled as a student at the University; but nothing which he attempted succeeded, so he turned to America with the intention of becoming a Unitarian minister. He became, instead, a farm-hand, a street-car conductor in Chicago, and a dairyman in Minneapolis; giving during the same period a series of lectures on French literature in Minneapolis. Having failed to make his fortune, but having acquired large experience, he returned to Christiania, where he starved, studied, and dreamed. In desperation he returned once more to America, with the expectation of making a living on the lecture platform; but his fellow-countrymen in the Northwest took no interest in the experiment, and he became a fisherman on a Newfoundland fishing-smack. In this occupation he spent three years, which may be regarded as constituting his post-graduate course in the varied and thorough schooling of life which he had received. In toil, deprivation, hunger, loneliness, failure, and work he had amassed material of immense richness for fiction; and when his first book, "Hunger," appeared, the title not only expressed the sentiment of the experience behind it, but was descriptive of the long series of works—over thirty novels, dramas, travel descriptions, essays, and poems—which have appeared since.

"Shallow Soil" is valued for its vivid description of life in Christiania towards the close of the last century, and has been selected for translation because it is more in accord with American taste. In many ways it is an admirable piece of work. The psychology is acute, the style has a great deal of beauty, and

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the story is worked out without haste and without waste of time or wandering from the main theme. The portraits of two women are drawn with a great deal of skill. As with nearly every book or play which comes from Scandinavia, an element of pessimism runs through it. It is not a pleasant story, and the life which it describes in Christiania is far from wholesome or attractive, but it is informing, it has freshness of style and human interest.

Quests Old and New. By G. R. S. Mead. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.25.

The "quests" here described are impelled by the hunger of the spirit of man for the satisfaction of its deepest need—need of truth, of reality. Their history, here followed from ancient times to our own, shows both that religion, a feeling after God, as St. Paul said at Athens, is the deepest of human feelings, and, as feeling, is grounded in psychical nature for effort toward its spiritual goal. So St. Paul taught the Corinthians first the natural, then the spiritual. Mr. Mead also believes that "the 'natural' man is gradually giving place to the 'spiritual' man," but traces this tendency solely in its extra-Biblical records. His illustrations of it are drawn from "the Way of the Spirit" in the Taoism of ancient China, from the ideals of progressive Buddhism, from mythical experiments on the frontiers of early Christendom, and from the nineteenth-century "rising of the psychic tide" in spiritualism or spiritism. This survey, sympathetic, critical, and illuminating, leads up to a presentation of the main positions of eminent modern philosophers —Vaihinger, the veteran Kantian of Halle, and the better-known Bergson and Eucken. Relying on the leadership of such men as these, he anticipates the clearing or solution of problems that have baffled all efforts merely intellectual.

Wolf of Gubbio (The). By Josephine Preston Peabody. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.

This latest drama from the author of "The Piper" is classified as a "comedy," but partakes rather of the spirit and structure of a miracle play. The dramatic element in it is subdued to and occasionally submerged in the human element. It has a panoramic scope and quality which give it an interest and an importance which put it on a higher plane than that reached by the great mass of contemporary plays. It is a sympathetic study of a cross-section of mediæval life, and it is rooted in the faith, the superstition, and the childlike mentality of an age not yet disturbed by science.

There is much more than local color in the author's dramatic rendering of one of the most famous of the many legends that invest the career of St. Francis not only with piety, but with poetry and spiritual romance; there is the atmosphere of the mind of a remote age. Judged by the requirements of the playhouse, "The Wolf of Gubbio" lacks concentration and unity; judged as a piece of literature, it has dignity, sincerity, and vital interest.

Foundations of Science. By H. Poincaré. Authorized Translation by George Bruce Halsted. (Science and Education Series, Vol. I.) The Science Press, Garrison, New York. $3.

In this volume the greatest mathematician now living, Dr. Jules Henri Poincaré, of Paris, applies to the foundations of science the testing scrutiny that has more often been applied to the foundations of theology. Sir Isaac Newton based the now current theory of the laws of nature on the geometry taught by Euclid and his successors. The non-Euclidean geometricians of our time hold that Newton's theory is but one of a host of rationally conceivable theories, another of which may be much more advantageous. Dr. Poincaré demonstrates that two of Euclid's supposedly indisputable axioms are disproved by the non-Euclideans. What Tennyson said of theological theories—

> "Our little systems have their day;
> They have their day, and cease to be"—

Dr. Poincaré shows is true also of scientific theories: they are serviceable interpreters of ill-understood phenomena, but, as progressive research discloses phenomena to which they have no key, they must surrender the torch of progress to their successors; orthodox theory loses finality, and dogma gives way to constructive reason, lighted onward by the torch of hypothesis. "Without hypothesis no science," says the eminent mathematician whose translation introduces Dr. Poincaré to the English-speaking world.

Advanced American History. By S. E. Forman. The Century Company, New York. $1.50.

A book like the present volume is a necessity. Advanced students need a compact and clearly told history of the United States in which much attention shall be given to economic and social subjects. The present volume is a veritable treasury of information in this respect. It treats amply the industrial and political history of recent times, carrying it to such a recent event as the passage by Congress of the Underwood tariff. The text is reinforced by good maps, illustrations, and references.

Commuter's Garden (The). Edited by Walter B. Haywood. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York. $1.

Another one of those encouraging, and often perfectly useless, books on gardening, which will awaken hopes in the minds of people who are quite unwilling to put real work into their garden beds and lawns. Gardening sounds easy in a book, but requires an equivalent in hard work and constant care.

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THE READER'S VIEW

SCHOOLS OF FORESTRY

I—A CORRECTION AS TO FACT

In a recent letter from Chancellor Day published in these columns The Outlook permitted to pass uncorrected a statement reflecting upon the sincerity of the State Grange. We have received a letter from the Master of the State Grange calling our attention to this matter and asking that the organization he represents be placed in a right light before our readers. Probably, as Mr. Vary suggests, Chancellor Day had been misinformed as to the facts of the case. Mr. Vary's letter follows:

"My attention has been called to an article in a recent issue of The Outlook, written by Chancellor James R. Day, of Syracuse University. I have nothing to say about the merits or demerits of the controversy that the Chancellor takes up, and I am taking exception only to one statement which he makes, and it is this: 'The committee on resolutions refused to report a resolution aimed at Syracuse and it was pushed through the Grange after nearly all the members had gone home.' I am unwilling to believe the Chancellor would make such a gross misstatement regarding the facts, and must assume that he was not correctly informed. At the time the action was taken by the New York State Grange practically every delegate was in his or her seat. This I remember very distinctly, as I had excused only three, and no delegate had a right to leave the hall without being excused. I simply desire to have the New York State Grange put right in this matter."

The Outlook takes this opportunity of recording its sympathy for the ideals of the Grange and our belief in the work of economic and social education which it has undertaken.

II—IN JUSTICE TO DR. FERNOW

I have no desire to take part in the controversy that is being waged between the schools of forestry at Cornell and Syracuse Universities. I never attended either college, nor have I been connected professionally with any one now on the faculty of either school of forestry or who was on that of the first New York State College of Forestry at Cornell. But I am very well acquainted with the history of that college; and in his article in The Outlook of April 25 Dr. Day makes a statement and an insinuation that in simple justice to Dr. Fernow should be rectified.

In his ninth statement of "facts" Dr. Day refers to an article in the "Forestry Quarterly" written by Professor Fernow, "the man in charge of the College of Forestry at Cornell when it was closed by the State's withholding its appropriation, because of its failure and worse than failure." That last clause, "because of its failure and worse than failure," is not only unwarranted, but is wholly contrary to fact. The New York State College of Forestry at Cornell was not a failure and was not closed for that reason. Another celebrated teacher of forestry is said to have prefaced one course of lectures with the statement, "There are two kinds of forestry—decent forestry and woman's club forestry." The original State College of Forestry was closed because some people who had no understanding of the first kind of forestry did have summer homes in the vicinity of the demonstration area of 30,000 acres which the State had set aside for the use of the College, and when those people found out that Dr. Fernow, a *forester!* was actually cutting some trees in the forest, they set up a clamorous howling. And, what was more effective, there were among that summer colony a number of prominent politicians, who were able to exert so much influence at Albany that they succeeded in getting the Legislature to cut off the entire appropriation for the College of Forestry, thus bringing its career to an abrupt end.

But in reality Dr. Fernow was beginning to put that demonstration area under an intensive system of forest management, and, if he had been allowed to continue his work, the Cornell College of Forestry would undoubtedly be the leading institution of that character in this country to-day. No other school of forestry has ever possessed such a magnificent forest laboratory. An unusually large proportion of the graduates of that first school have attained prominence in their profession and stand among the leaders in the Forest Service, in State forestry, and in educational work. Soon after the Cornell school was closed Dr. Fernow was called to Canada to establish the Department of Forestry in the University of Toronto. Forestry education in this country never received a greater blow than when the New York State College of Forestry at Cornell was closed.

ELWOOD I. TERRY,
Director Colorado School of Forestry.
Colorado Springs, Colorado.

PELAGIC SEALING

The editorial on pelagic sealing in The Outlook for April 25 is most discouraging, as it gives the support of your journal to the most misleading series of reports ever issued. These reports are based upon the statements of one man and are strictly *ex parte*. In some cases they have not even been submitted to the committee from which they purport to have come. Their object is to gratify the vanity and malice of one individual by maligning every one who happens to differ from him. In every instance mere testimony is accepted and real evidence

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disregarded. The report to which you allude is only one of a series, and the following comment has been made by a disinterested person upon the report immediately preceding it:

It is outrageous that the United States Government should circulate such a mass of misrepresentations and falsehood as is contained in this report; especially in the "deadly parallel" parts of it. The summaries at the head of each column are in many cases deliberate falsifications of the testimony as quoted; in many more they are obvious misrepresentations.

The general character of these reports is such that even the Administration in whose interests they are supposed to be made deems it necessary to send a commission to the Pribilof Islands to ascertain what conditions really exist.

As a small matter of detail I would call your attention to the fact that the statement that between 1870 and 1890 the North American Commercial Company had charge of the islands is incorrect. It was the Alaska Commercial Company which then held the lease. In 1911 the killing of seals was taken over by the Government, and those seals that have been killed since have been taken under Government inspection. The statement that 128,000 yearling seals were taken is absolutely false.

F. A. LUCAS,
Director.

American Museum of Natural History,
New York City.

[We are glad to give place to a statement on this topic from so authoritative a source as the Director of the American Museum of Natural History. The statements quoted in the editorial paragraphs referred to were, as we understand, from a report of a Congressional Committee.—THE EDITORS.]

NATIONAL PROHIBITION

[A correspondent who has been active in promoting the interest of the educational anti-alcohol campaign sends us the following letter, with the copy of a statement by Charles W. Eliot, which may have escaped the notice of our readers. Both letter and statement seem to us of unusual interest.—THE EDITORS.]

Until I read your two editorial paragraphs "The Handwriting on the Wall" and "A Confession, Not a Charge" National prohibition had seemed a far-away ideal. You showed it to be a coming political issue. As a matter of curiosity, I thought that I would sound my community. The first man I saw was a business man, a banker, in no way interested in "temperance" movements. He said: "While I could not vote for State prohibition, I should not have the face to vote against National prohibition, because it would take so much corruption out of politics and be into the bargain such an economic saving."

The second one was a prominent Boston physician on the staff of one of our hospitals, and also a professor at our Harvard Medical School. He answered at once: "I should vote for National prohibition. Science has set her face against alcohol. Medicine, in my opinion, would be better off, on the whole, without it. The neurotic drinker might turn to drugs, but he is few and far between compared with the social drinker and the constant, moderate drinker. They would be saved."

The next man was a printer, an Irish Catholic. He said: "Alcohol is the curse of my race. National prohibition would get my vote, for, even if it did not do everything, it would do something."

The last man was a liquor dealer. He said: "Two years ago, at a meeting of liquor dealers, we gave ourselves twenty years of life. This year we agreed that ten was about all that we could hope for." E. T.

Cambridge, Massachusetts.

President Eliot's statement follows:

THE MENACE OF DRINK

It is quite true that I have taken much more interest in the temperance question in the last ten years of my life than I did earlier, and this increase of interest has come from certain studies and opportunities for observation. These studies related to the terrible effects of alcoholism in increasing the number of the feeble-minded, insane, and criminal in our American communities. Later I had the opportunity of studying the German investigations on the mental effects of very limited doses of alcohol, doses which most people have always supposed to be completely innocuous. The German investigations seemed to me to prove that even twenty-four hours after taking a small dose of alcohol the time-reaction in the human being is unfavorably affected. Now the quickness of the time-reaction is important to every mechanic, to every artisan, and particularly to every person who is engaged in a dangerous occupation, like driving an automobile, for instance, or managing a circular saw, or, indeed, in the tending of any powerful machine or hot furnace. Lastly, somewhat more than a year ago I had a long opportunity of observing the difference between the white race and the Japanese, the Chinese, the Indian, the Malay, and some of the Mahometan people, in regard to susceptibility to the alcoholic temptation. The white race is inferior to all the other people I have named in regard to this susceptibility to the temptation of alcoholism. No observant person can travel through the East for a year without being shocked by the manifest tendency of the white race temporarily resident there to destroy itself through alcoholism. Alcohol is destructive in the highest degree to the white race in the tropics, and all through the tropics the white race exhibits a terrible lack of self-control with regard to the use of alcoholic drinks. It is mortifying to the last degree for an American to see intoxicated American soldiers and sailors staggering about the streets of the Chinese cities where we now have troops, and never to see a Japanese soldier in such condition, although the Japanese have five times as many troops there as we have. I mention but a single fact; but the lesson of the East is that the alcoholism of the white race must be overcome, or that vice, with the licentiousness it promotes, will overcome the race.

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BY THE WAY

Major-General Daniel E. Sickles, who died in New York City on May 3, was, with two exceptions (General Grenville M. Dodge and General Peter J. Osterhaus—the latter 93 years old), the last surviving Federal corps commander engaged in the Civil War. General Sickles commanded the Third Corps at Chancellorsville and at Gettysburg, and before that commanded a division of the corps at Antietam and at Fredericksburg. At Gettysburg, at the famous "Bloody Angle," one of his knees was shattered by a shell, but he buckled a strap about it and stayed on horseback until the day's fight was over; that night his leg was amputated.

Mr. Guy Lowell's plans for the new circular county court house in New York City have been formally approved. The building will, it is estimated, cost about $10,000,000.

San Antonio, Texas, is to try the experiment of paving streets with mesquite-wood blocks. It is stated that millions of acres of land in southern Texas and northern Mexico are covered with a thick growth of mesquite trees. The wood, it is claimed, is of remarkable durability, and its abundance would make the material very cheap for paving purposes.

An old lady, says the editor of the "Ladies' Home Journal," was discussing the differences between the old and the new. "We hadn't anything but the reading-book to read when I was a girl," she said, "but I know the best parts of that so I can say them to myself now I'm sitting here in the dark; and my grandchildren don't know what they read last week! It soaked into me, and it drips off of them." The editor concludes: "Not what drips off, but that which soaks in is of real importance, stays with the reader, and affects and develops character."

Dr. Sohn, a German physician, declares that the typical musician or composer has a somewhat abnormally shaped head. "These heads," he says, "from an artistic point of view are not beautiful; even the titanic head of Beethoven is deficient in this respect." On the other hand, Dr. Sohn says that "among the many profile portraits of musicians before me, some of them exceedingly ugly, I have come upon none in which there were any evidences of degeneration."

The Imperator, of the Hamburg-American Line, has now what is described as the most complete fire-fighting equipment ever placed on board any ship. Automatic fire alarms and automatic sprinklers are in all sections of the vessel, and a staff of professionally trained firemen have charge of the fire-extinguishing apparatus, their sole duty being to guard against fire.

The moving-picture play has captured the Orient. There are said to be now over one hundred moving-picture theaters in Tokyo, Japan.

The cultivation of bluberries in gardens has been the subject of recent experiments by the Bureau of Plant Industry at Washington. Success depends upon methods quite different from those usually adopted in gardening. An acid fertilizer, for instance, must be used instead of the ordinary alkaline fertilizer. The propagation and sale of the plants has not yet been undertaken by the commercial nurseries, but this may follow upon the Governmental indications as to the proper methods of culture.

The retort conclusive that probably failed to mitigate punishment is thus quoted by the Philadelphia "Record:" "'What is your name?' asked the magistrate. 'Michael O'Halloran,' answered the prisoner. 'What is your occupation? What work do you do?' 'Oi'm a sailor.' The magistrate looked incredulous. 'I don't believe you ever saw a ship,' he said. 'Didn't Oi, then?' said the prisoner. 'An' phwat do yez t'ink I come over in—a hack?'"

A booklet on motoring in Europe says: "Avoid Spain! Even the main roads are atrocious, being often deep in dust and stones and spanned by untrustworthy bridges. The speed limit of 6½ miles an hour gives only a faint indication of the mediævalism of the Spanish attitude toward motorists." That these difficulties constitute a challenge to the adventurous traveler, however, is seen in this final statement: "Many bold travelers are willing to risk the discomfort for the sake of the scenery."

The lumbering industry, according to an article in "American Forestry," is encountering serious competition from the makers of substitutes for wood, in these lines: Packing boxes, which are now being largely made of fiber; shingles; fence posts; lath; sidewalks in villages; small bridges and culverts on highways; railway bridges and cars; floors and trim in large buildings; office furniture. The writer in "Forestry" deprecates much of this competition, however, for the lumber used in this way is mostly low grade, and a reduced market for this results in further exploitation of the better timber to keep up profits.

In a recent report of excavations at Rome, in The Outlook, the Ara Pacis was inadvertently mentioned as if its location were in the Forum. It is not in the Forum, but in the Corso.

Work has begun in New York City to complete the building of a track for express trains on the Third Avenue elevated road. This is expected to divert some travel from the congested subway.

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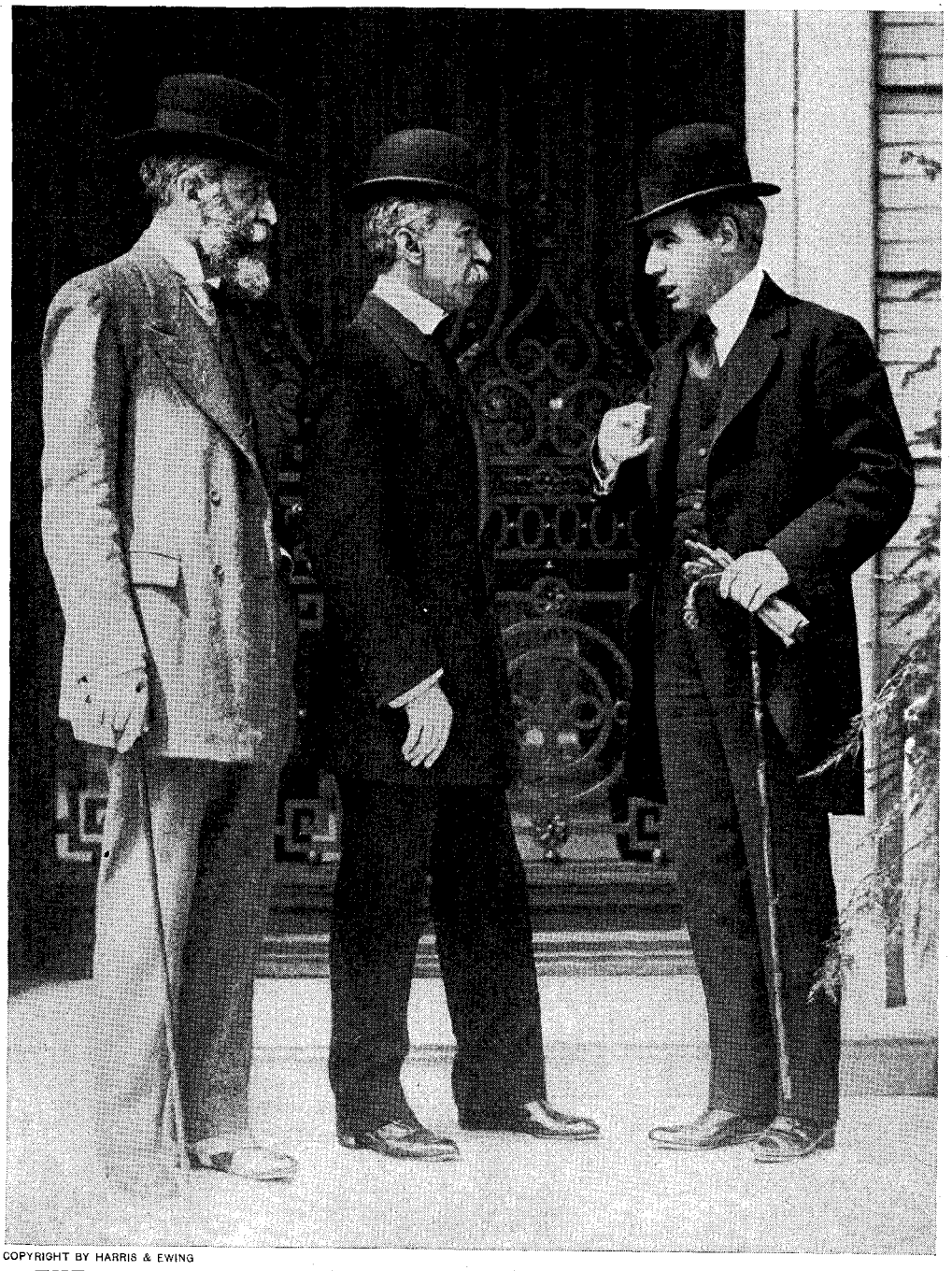
Current Events Pictorially Treated



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THE ENVOYS WHO ARE MEDIATING IN THE MEXICAN DIFFICULTY

From left to right: Eduardo Suarez, Minister from Chile; Domicio da Gama, Ambassador from Brazil; and Romulo S. Naon, Minister from Argentina. Whatever effect their undertaking may have upon the relations of the United States with turbulent Mexico, it will be of historic importance as establishing new relations of co-operation between the United States and the three greatest republics of South America

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CIVIL GOVERNOR ROBERT J. KERR

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REAR-ADMIRAL FRANK FRIDAY FLETCHER

PHOTOGRAPH BY BROWN BROTHERS

BRIGADIER-GENERAL FREDERICK FUNSTON

THE THREE AMERICAN GOVERNORS OF THE MEXICAN CITY VERA CRUZ

First came Admiral Fletcher with bluejackets and marines, who restored order and confidence. In instituting municipal government, Admiral Fletcher, in consultation with General Funston, appointed Mr. Kerr as Civil Governor. When the time came for the control of the city to be transferred from the navy to the army, Mr. Kerr's brief administration came to an end, and the government of the city was placed in the hands of General Funston, commanding the Fifth Brigade

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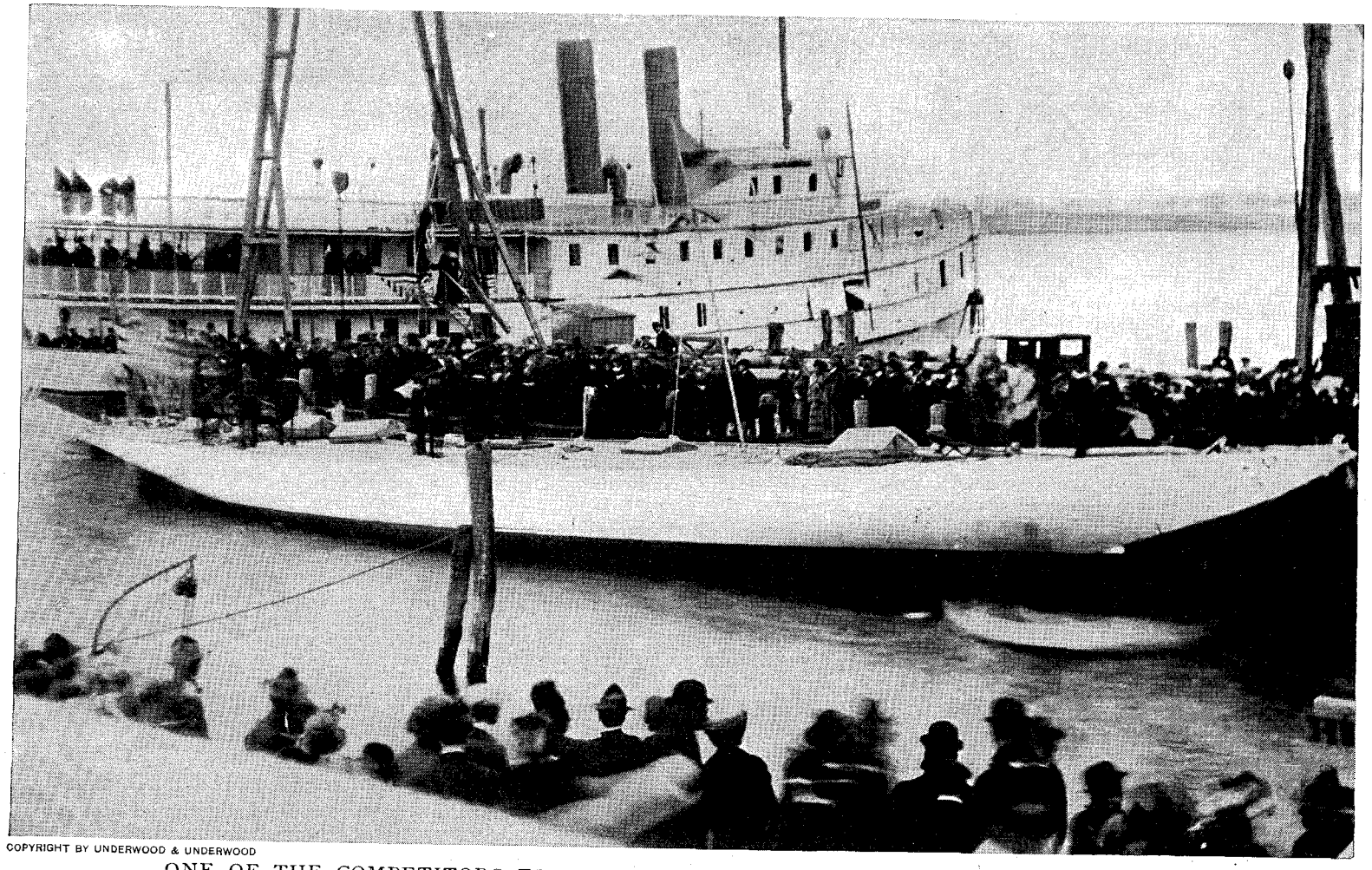

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ONE OF THE COMPETITORS FOR THE HONOR OF DEFENDING THE AMERICA'S CUP

The Resolute, built by Herreshoff for a syndicate of members of the New York Yacht Club, was launched on April 25 at Bristol, Rhode Island. This sloop will contest with the Defiance and the Vanitie the right to sail against Sir Thomas Lipton's challenger, the Shamrock IV, to keep the most famous of yachting trophies on this side of the Atlantic

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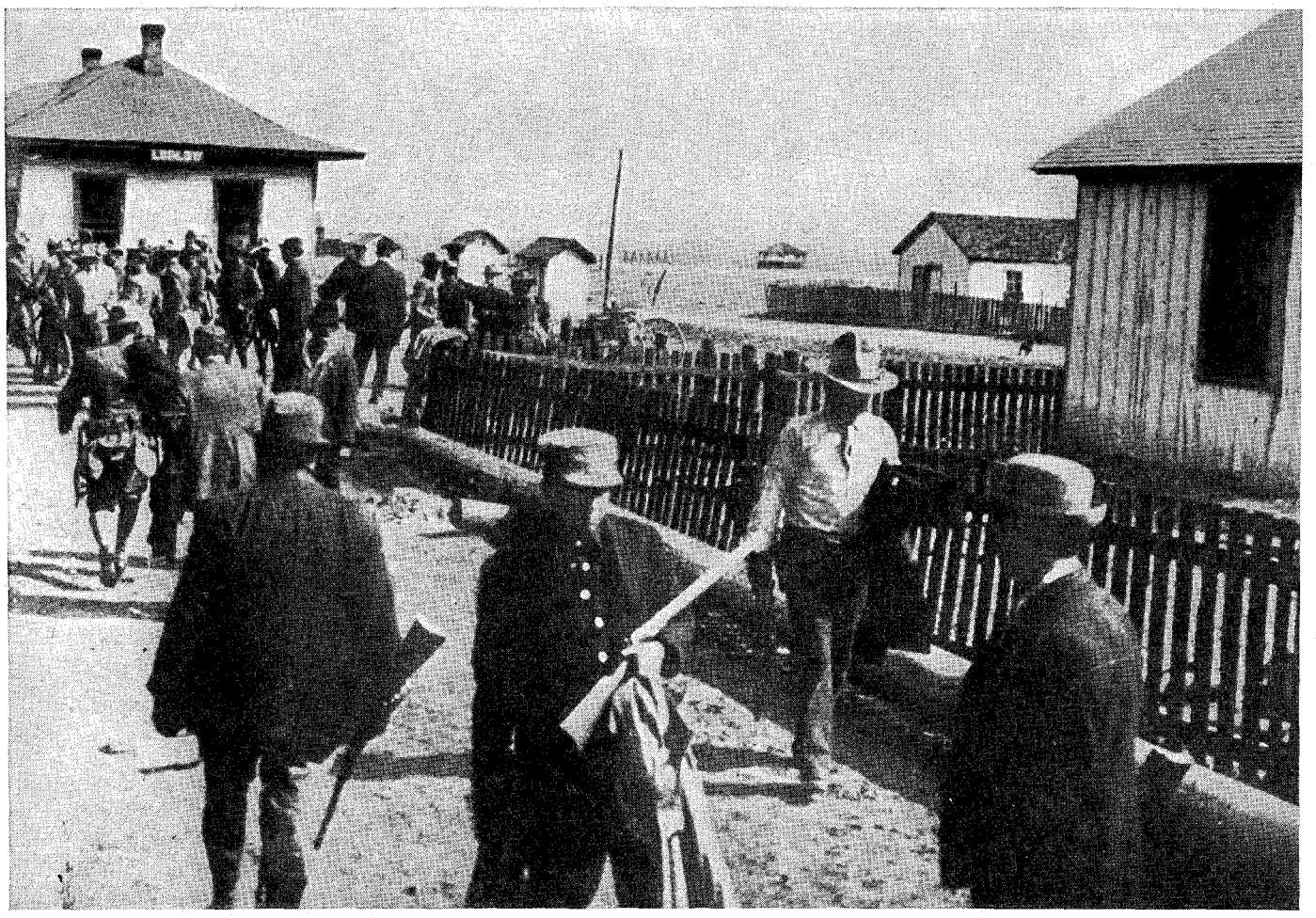

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MEN ARMED FOR PRIVATE WAR

Ludlow, Colorado, where this picture was taken, has been the headquarters of the striking miners in the strike war with private mine guards and State militia. This view of men with rifles in hand is enough to show the barbarous character of this method of attempting to settle an industrial question

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FUGITIVES FROM THE TERRORS OF PRIVATE WAR

In the course of the strike war in Colorado a tent colony at Ludlow was burned. The women and children in the picture are in search of shelter from bullets and fire. Yet the people of the United States cannot make up their minds that there is a better way of settling industrial questions than by such barbarities

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PHOTOGRAPH BY T. M. FISHER

MISS HELEN KELLER "SEEING" WITHOUT EYES THE "GARDEN OF THE GODS"

To the right of the picture is Mrs. Macy, who discovered the way to the mind of her pupil, in spite of the lack of both sight and hearing. She is here spelling into Miss Keller's hand the story of the great rocks

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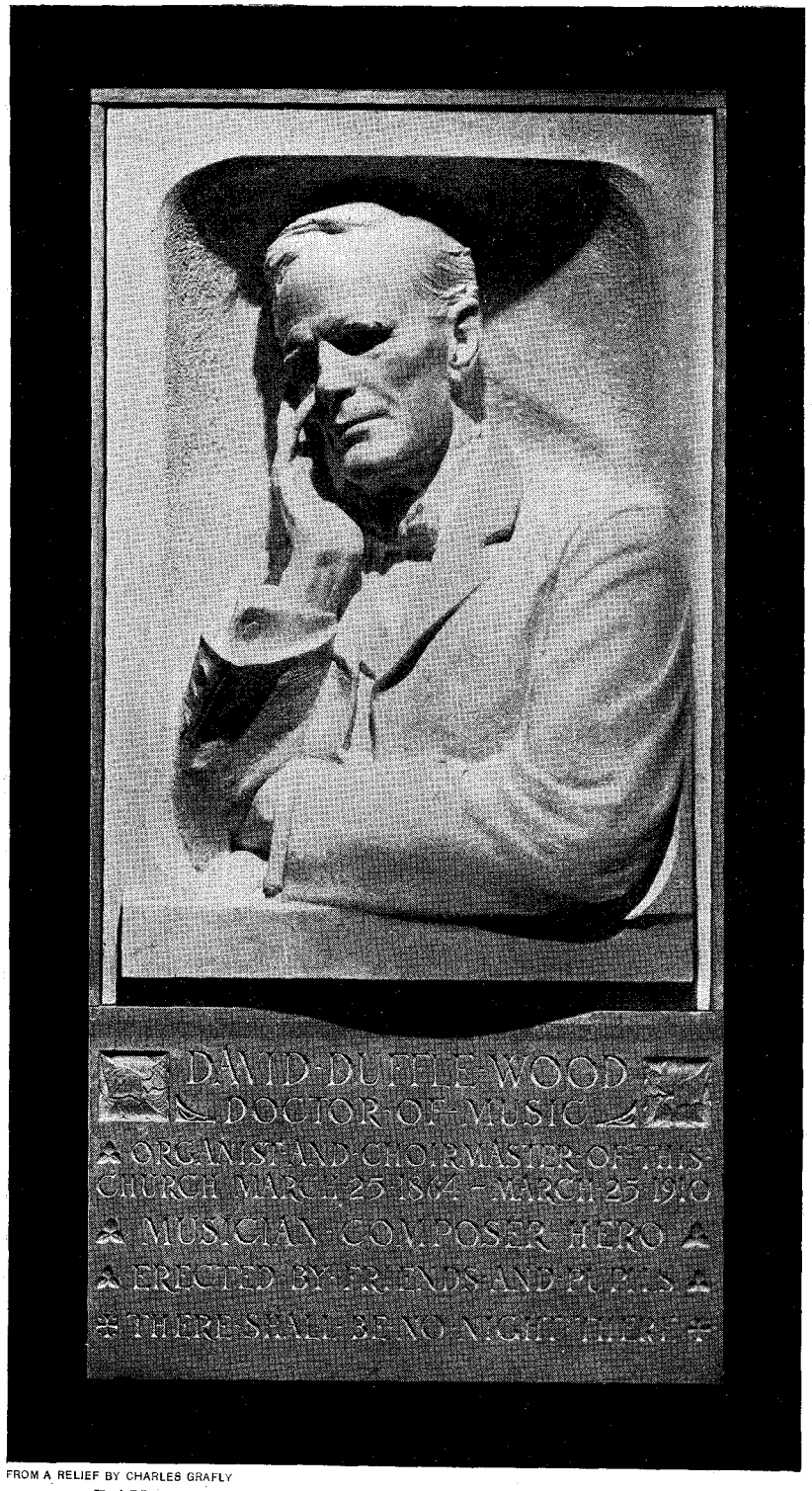

FROM A RELIEF BY CHARLES GRAFLY

DAVID DUFFLE WOOD, AMERICAN COMPOSER AND ORGANIST

A memorial to this distinguished blind musician, who died in 1910, has been erected in St. Stephen's Church, Philadelphia. This sculptured tablet is the work of Charles Grafly

See editorial comment

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FROM THE NEW YORK SUN

IT'S LUCKY THE OLD GENTLEMAN CAN'T HEAR

Cartoon by Cesare

FROM THE MASSES

"UNLAWFUL ASSEMBLY"

Cartoon by Maurice Becker

THE ANTI-UNIONIST AND ANTI-CAPITALIST VERSIONS OF LABOR WAR

The New York "Sun" is a severe critic of organized labor; the "Masses" is a radical agitator against capitalism and capitalists. Each denounces "unlawful assembly" as it appears in the camp of the other. Together these two journals provide a graphic argument against the evil of industrial warfare

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